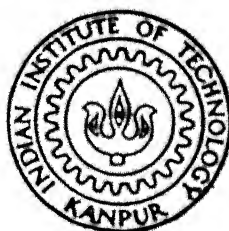


SATISFACTION AMONG MARRIED WORKING WOMEN :

An Analysis of Work-Family Aspects

by

SEEMA SAXENA



DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY KANPUR

MARCH, 1992

- 3 FEB 1994

TH.

305.4
S0778

CENTRAL LIBRARY
I I T., KANPUR

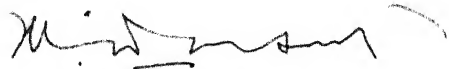
Acc. No. A. 117208

HSS-1995-D. SAX-SAT

CERTIFICATE

It is certified that the work contained in this thesis entitled "Satisfaction Among Married Working Women: An Analysis of Work-Family Aspects" by Seema Saxena, has been carried out under my supervision and that the work has not been submitted elsewhere for a degree.

March, 1992



Mahfooz A. Ansari

Department of Humanities and
Social Sciences

Indian Institute of Technology
Kanpur 208 016

SECTION VI--Personal Data

- (01) Your age (in years): -----
- (02) Educational qualifications: -----
- (03) Designation: -----
- (04) Name of the place where
you work presently: -----
- (05) Number of years of working in
your present organization/office: -----
- (06) Number of years of working in
your present position: -----
- (07) Monthly income (including salary, allowances, etc..) Check one of the
following:
- (a) Below Rs. 2,000/-
 - (b) Between Rs. 2,001/- to Rs. 2,500/-
 - (c) Between Rs. 2,501/- to Rs. 3,000/-
 - (d) Between Rs. 3,001/- to Rs. 3,500/-
 - (d) Between Rs. 3,501/- to Rs. 4,000/-
 - (e) Between Rs. 4,001/- to Rs. 4,500/-
 - (f) Between Rs. 4,501/- to Rs. 5,000/-
 - (g) Over Rs. 5,000/-
- (08) Number of years married: -----
- (09) Number of children: Sons =----- Daughters =-----
- (10) Age of the youngest child: -----

Once again thank you for your cooperation.

-
- Note. (1) Asterisk marked items were not used in the final analysis.
(2) Underlined numbers in parentheses represent negative items.

To
My Mother

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	page
PREFACE	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xvi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xix
Chapter 1 Introduction	2
Chapter 2 Methodology	31
Chapter 3 Work and Family Satisfaction	73
Chapter 4 Interrole and Life Satisfaction.	126
Chapter 5 Summary and Conclusions.	156
REFERENCES	184
APPENDIX	204

Satisfaction with various aspects of life has been an area of interest for researchers in behavioral sciences. Current research suggests that people's affective reactions to various aspects of life transcend from one life domain to the other. As a result of this assumption, the research regarding work-nonwork within the domain and across domains received attention by the investigators in the recent past. The advent of married women's entry into laborforce in large number required redefinitions of various concepts in the domain of work. This is owing to the fact that rapid societal changes have taken place as a result of women's expansion of their traditionally assigned role of a homemaker by working outside home. Thus, the issues related to work and nonwork (e.g., family) relationships seem to have special significance for the dual career women.

The present work addresses itself to some of the research questions related to women's satisfaction with various aspects of life--satisfaction with work, family, interrole (built-in work and family satisfaction), and life in general.

This volume has been arranged into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the concept of satisfaction alongwith its state-of-the-art. It also delineates the proposal of the present research.

The second chapter is devoted to the methodological issues which include information regarding the sample chosen, the procedures adopted, the measures used, and the analytical strategies followed.

Chapter 3 confines itself to the results and discussion regarding work and family satisfaction. It contains three parts. The first part deals with work satisfaction, the second part deals with family satisfaction, and the third part gives an account of cross-domain direct and interactive relationships of work and family.

Chapter 4 fulfills the objective regarding interrole and life satisfaction. It consists of two sections. The first section contains the results related to interrole satisfaction and the second section deals with the results related to life satisfaction.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents a summary of results and a general discussion considering the objectives of the study. Also, the implications, recommendations for future research, and potential limitations of the present study are also mentioned.

There are many people I wish to thank who helped me directly or indirectly in making this venture a success. My most sincere and deepest gratitude goes to Dr. Mahfooz A. Ansari without whose inspirational supervision and support I would not have been able to complete this work. The freedom and independence of work he provided is highly appreciated.

I am also thankful to Drs. L. Krishnan, A.K. Sinha, and N.K. Sharma for enriching my knowledge through the course work. I wish to thank Dr. B.N. Patnaik for his concern, support, and encouragement.

I would be failing in my duties if I do not acknowledge Arti who provided me with much needed help and emotional support, and always stood by me at times of utmost crisis.

I would like to thank Dinesh P. Parihar for his helpful comments and suggestions, to Anupam for her concern and consideration, and to Nagarjuna for his kind help at the time of the processing of the thesis. I sincerely thank Nigam ji for his painstaking typing, and to all the office staff for their kind support and help wherever required.

This acknowledgement would not be complete unless I mention the support, love, and affection of my mausi ji and mausa ji. Had they not stood by me , I would have never been able to take up this venture.

March,1992

Seema Saxena

LIST OF TABLES

2.1 Distribution of Respondents in Different Occupations at Two Levels.	33
2.2 Percentage Distribution of Respondents on Demographic Characteristics.	34
2.3 Mean Scores and E-ratios on Demographic Characteristics.	36
2.4 Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations Among the Satisfaction Measures (N = 300)	41
2.5 Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations Among the Satisfaction Measures for the Two Samples	42
2.6 Factor Loadings Obtained: Job Dimensions.	48
2.7 Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of Job Dimensions	50
2.8 Factor Loadings Obtained: Family Work Dimensions. . .	51
2.9 Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of Family Work Dimensions.	53
2.10 Factor Loadings Obtained: Locus of Control.	55
2.11 Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Correlation of Locus of Control Dimensions.	57
2.12 Descriptive Statistics, Scale Characteristics, and Coefficients Alpha for All Predictors (N = 300).	58

2.13	Descriptive Statistics, Scale Characteristics, and Coefficients Alpha for All Predictors (Higher and Lower Group).	59
2.14	Intercorrelations Among All the Predictors ($N = 300$). . .	60
2.15	Intercorrelation Among All the Predictors for the Two Groups (Higher and Lower Group).	61
2.16	Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of the Moderator Variables ($N = 300$).	62
2.17	Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of the Moderator Variables for the two Groups (Higher and Lower Group).	62
2.18	Zero-order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables ($N = 300$).	63
2.19	Zero-order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables (Higher Group). . . .	64
2.20	Zero-order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables (Lower Group). . . .	65
2.21	Zero-order Correlations Between Predictors and Criterion Variables ($N = 300$).	66
2.22	Zero-order Correlations Between Predictors and Criterion Variables (Higher Group).	67
2.23	Zero-order Correlations Between Predictors and Criterion Variables (Lower Group).	68

2.24 Mean Scores and E-ratio on Criterion Variables as a Function of Occupational Status.	69
3.1 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--work Content Variables (Predictors) and Work Satisfaction (Criterion).	78
3.2 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--work Context Variables (Predictors) and Work Satisfaction (Criterion).	86
3.3 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results-- Family Content Variables (Predictors) and Family Satisfaction (Criterion).	93
3.4 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Family Satisfaction (Criterion).	101
3.5 Stepwise Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Family Satisfaction).	111
3.6 Stepwise Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Work Satisfaction).	113
4.1 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Content Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion).	130
4.2 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Context Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion).	131

4.3 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Content Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion).	134
4.4 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion).	135
4.5 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Content Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion).	145
4.6 stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Context Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion).	146
4.7 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Content Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion).	149
4.8 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion).	150

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1 A summary of proposed relationships among predictor, criterion, and moderator variables	29
3.1 Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of feedback in work (predictor) and career orientaton (Moderator).	79
3.2 Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of organizational involvement (Predictor) and career orientation and chance (Moderators).	87
3.3 Mean family satisfaction scores as a function of authonomy in family (Predictor) and powerful others locus of control (Moderator).	94
3.4 Mean family satisfaction scores as a function of influence and involvement (Predictor), and self image (Moderator).	102
3.5 Two dimensional classification system of variables and their linkages.	107
3.6 Mean family satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of the interactions of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family.	118

3.7 Mean family satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of interaction of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family.	119
3.8 Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of interaction of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family.	122
3.9 Mean work satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of interaction of work climate and family climate.	123
4.1 Mean interrole satisfaction scores as a function of work climate, organizational involvement, and influence in work (Predictors) and self image (Moderator)	132
4.2 Mean interrole satisfaction scores for the higher group as a function of family climate, meaningfulness, and autonomy in family (Predictors) and self image and powerful others (Moderators).	136
4.3 Mean interrole satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of involvement, influence, and climate in family (Predictors) and self image and powerful others (Moderators).	138
4.4 Mean life satisfaction scores as function of feedback and variety in work (Predictors) and career orientation, self image, and chance (Moderators).	147

4.5 Mean life satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of feedback and involvement in family (Predictors) and career orientation and self image (Moderators).	151
5.1 A summary of within domain relationships for higher group.	158
5.2 A summary of within and cross-domain relationships for higher group.	160
5.3 a summary of within domain relationships for lower group.	161
5.4 a summary of within and cross-domain relationships for lower group.	163
5.5 A summary of work-family predictors and interrole satisfaction relationships for higher group.	165
5.6 A summary of work-family predictors and interrole satisfaction relationships for lower group.	166
5.7 A summary of work-family predictors and life satisfaction relationships for higher group.	168
5.8 A summary of work-family predictors and life satisfaction relationships for lower group.	170

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AF = Autonomy in Family
CH = Chance External Locus of Control
CO = Career Orientation
FC = Family Climate
FDS = Family Dimensions
FF = Feedback in Family
FI = Family Involvement
FS = Family Satisfaction
FW = Feedback in Work
HI = High
IF = Influence in Family
IRS = Interrole Satisfaction
JDS = Job Dimension Survey
LO = Low
LOC = Locus of Control
M = Mean
MF = Meaningfulness in Family
MW = Meaningfulness in Work
OC = Organizational Climate
OI = Organizational Involvement
p = Probability Level
PS1 = Principal Factoring Without Iteration
PA2 = Principal Factoring with Iteration
PO = Powerful Others Locus of Control
R = Regression Coefficient
SD = Standard Deviation
SI = Self Image
SPSS = Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VW = Variety in Work
WS = Work Satisfaction

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Contents

An Overview	2
The Concept of Satisfaction	3
The Background.	3
Facets of Satisfaction.	5
The Concept of Work.	10
Work-Family Interface.	13
Work-Family Nexus and Satisfaction.	22
The Proposed Research.	23

An Overview

The concept of "work" is related to several consequences in the life of individuals. These consequences might be negative as well as positive. Among the several positive outcomes, satisfaction has been considered increasingly important and, thus, has been studied extensively by researchers in almost all behavioral sciences.

Among the various subsets of life satisfaction, the most widely studied and explored affective response is one's satisfaction with his/her job (Locke, 1976; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1964). This is not to suggest that other less well-defined subsets of satisfaction have any less value.

Recently, researchers have shown their interest in the ways employing and family organizations relate to each other in terms of job satisfaction and overall nonwork life. Further, researchers have attempted to attribute the relationship of work and family to certain processes which explain the phenomenon of work-family linkage.

This chapter attempts to address some of the issues mentioned above. It has been arranged into four major sections. The first section presents a detailed account of the concept of "satisfaction." It contains information regarding the state-of-the-art of the concept and the types of satisfaction.

The second major section deals with the concept of "work" which may be considered to be the antecedent of satisfaction. This section elaborates mainly the concept of "work," and the two domains in which it finds expression, i.e., employing organization and family. Besides, it discusses the work and family relationships as studied in the past. This discussion provides theoretical assumptions presently existing to explain the work-family linkage.

The third section consists of information regarding how the concept of "satisfaction" is studied in relation to work-family interface. Finally, the last section provides a research proposal for the present study.

THE CONCEPT OF SATISFACTION

The Background

The notion of "satisfaction" is one of the most vividly discussed topics among researchers in the areas of industrial and organizational psychology, marriage and family sociology, and social psychology. Its importance lies not only as an essential outcome variable which relates to a number of psycho-social and personal variables and phenomena, but it also has implications for policy makers, managers, and family practitioners.

Satisfaction is a subjective experience which is manifested in individual's attitudes and behavior. It is presumably a function of the actual conditions of some aspects of human life and expectations from it (Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1983). More objectively, it is an attitude which an individual builds after evaluating the overall situation around him/her and his/her own expectations from that particular situation or aspect of life. If apparent conditions are sufficient enough and are closer to one's expectation level, the person reports satisfaction.

Some researchers have tried to understand the concept in terms of equity, while others conceptualize it according to one's expectancy level and discrepancy. Locke (1969, 1976) presents a theory of discrepancy which states that satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of two components: the perceived discrepancy between desired and obtained outcomes and the valence of what is desired. Thus, it is a sum-total of each aspect of satisfaction multiplied by its valence as it exists for the individual. Satisfaction has been defined by Porter

and Lawler (1968) as "... the extent to which rewards actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of rewards" (p. 31).

Three important views about job satisfaction are identifiable. First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. It is an experience and thus can only be inferred. Secondly, it is often determined by the extent to which outcomes meet expectations of the individual. And finally, it represents several related attitudes. In an exhaustive study by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), five job dimensions were suggested from which people may be satisfied or dissatisfied. These were: work itself; pay; promotion opportunities; supervision; and co-workers.

Lawler (1973) maintains that facet satisfaction is related to equity in treatment (Adams, 1965)--that is, if the perceived amount of output is greater than the desired, then there is a feeling of guilt and inequity; whereas if the perceived amount of output is less than what is desired, then there should be a feeling of dissatisfaction. Here, not only individual's own expectation level but also that of the other with whom the individual compares himself/herself is treated as referents. However, similar to Locke's view, Lawler acknowledges the concept of valence or importance of a facet for the individual.

A number of researchers have established the relationship of satisfaction with the degree of need fulfillment of the individual (e.g., Lofquist & Davis, 1969; Morse, 1953; Porter, 1962; Schaffer, 1953; Woffard, 1971). However, the most popular need theories to date are Maslow's (1954) need-hierarchy theory and Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory.

Another group of researchers describes satisfaction to be a function of individual's values and perceived situations. If there is congruence between the two, the person experiences satisfaction (Kalleberg, 1977; Katzell, 1979; Locke, 1969; Morse, 1953; Mottaz, 1986; Vroom, 1964).

Broadly speaking, it can be assumed that whereas one group of researchers believes in the global nature of satisfaction, another group believes that various facets of one's life bring satisfaction for the individual--the sum-total of which constitutes overall satisfaction with life.

Facets of Satisfaction

There is an extensive body of literature which reveals that satisfaction with life in general has several facets or domains, such as satisfaction with one's job, with one's family, with leisure, and so on. It is as if life satisfaction were a pie, the slices or components of which might be represented by satisfaction with particular domains of life. Life satisfaction is considered to be the sum-total of all these components, with each valued (weighed) differentially in terms of its relative contribution to overall life satisfaction (Near et al., 1983).

Out of all these facets of life in general, individual's life in work organization and in family are the two most important aspects which constitute a large amount of human experiences. More specifically, people's life is largely guided by dissatisfaction or satisfaction experienced in these two domains of life. It is, therefore, important to know how they have been conceptualized and how they relate to each other and to few other aspects of life.

Work Satisfaction

Satisfaction with one's job or occupation has been defined as the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help fulfill one's basic needs (Locke, 1976, p. 1319).

Earlier researchers reported more satisfaction to be tied with extrinsic aspects of work such as pay and relationships (Taylor, 1911). Hoppock (1935)

showed a positive correlation between the level of management and job satisfaction. However, equal attention was paid by others to the contingency of job satisfaction and intrinsic job characteristics such as variety, challenge, autonomy, and responsibility (James & Jones, 1980; Wimpers & Farr, 1979).

Satisfaction has been found to increase with the level of occupation. That is, professionals at higher jobs are reported as among those experiencing the higher level of job satisfaction. Centers and Bugental (1966) found that at higher levels of occupation intrinsic job characteristics such as self-expression and value of work were more cherished, whereas at lower levels extrinsic job characteristics such as pay and security were more valued. This proposition has received enough empirical support (e.g., Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Jurgenson, 1947).

Some researchers have tried to look for sex differences in the way people place value to intrinsic and extrinsic task characteristics and the level of satisfaction (e.g., Centers & Bugental, 1966; Voydanoff, 1980). However, the findings reported are equivocal.

Several individual and personality characteristics have been reported to moderate the job characteristics-satisfaction relationship. Some of these variables are growth needs (Abdel-Halim, 1979; Ganster, 1980; Robey & Bakr, 1978; Sims & Szilagyi, 1976) and achievement motivation (Steers & Spencer, 1977).

Research evidence regarding the relationship of satisfaction with locus of control suggests that the more the subjects are internals, the more they are resistant to attempts to coerce them, are more sensitive to skill challenging cues, and gain more information about what is going on around them (Lefcourt, 1975). Kroop (1981) observed that internals perceived their jobs to be more enriched and held more positive attitudes towards job than did externals. In addition, they showed greater job involvement, satisfaction, motivation, and

psychological growth satisfaction than did externals(Sims & Szilagyi, 1976).

Greenhaus and Badin (1974), in a review of studies, concluded that satisfaction and performance are related but self-esteem moderates this relationship. They reported that performance was related to satisfaction only for high self-esteem subjects.

Evidence suggests that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of the fit or the lack of fit between the worker requirements and the objective situations. For example, working women with family responsibilities tend to be more satisfied with convenient jobs (Katzell, 1979). However, studies accounting for variance in job satisfaction have mainly offered or emphasized structural or job-related explanations (D'Arcy, Syrotink, & Siddique, 1984; Wright, King, Berg, & Creecy, 1987).

A growing number of literature suggests that satisfaction with job is not only treated as an independent measure, but is also treated as an antecedent of certain outcomes such as productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. However, the results obtained are of mixed nature.

Family Satisfaction

Satisfaction with family in general terms may be defined as "people's expressed feeling with various aspects of marriage and family life." In the recent past, organizational psychologists have turned their attention to the aspect of family, the related behavioral phenomena to it, and the relationship of family with other work and nonwork domains.

The possible reason for not studying family in relation to work or other broader concepts may be that men were not thought of being much influenced by family or family life because their primary role had been conceived of bread

winner and most of the earlier researchers in organizational behavior employed men as sample. However, marriage and family sociologists did study this variable but from sociological point of view. Since more and more women are now entering into workforce, it seems logical to study family satisfaction to have a comparative view to understand its relationship to more broader concepts such as life in general.

The status of family is a very significant variable in predicting family satisfaction and also in predicting work satisfaction. This fact becomes more prominent in the context of women where they seek their identity and status through the occupational position of their husbands. Thus, considerations like husbands' pay and promotion become more important for women's family satisfaction.

Other factors such as mobility, division of labor, participation, family size (Orden & Bradburn, 1969), and the type of family (nuclear vs joint) have also been reported as essential determinants of quality and quantity of family satisfaction.

Though indirect but evidence were obtained from the studies of Haavio-Mannila(1971) and Weiss and Samuelson (1958) that family happiness and satisfaction had the highest correlation with overall life. However, important connections between work and family satisfaction have been lately studied by researchers to which we turn to in the later section of this chapter.

Interrole Satisfaction

Research shows that work satisfaction is caused by features of work environment, whereas family satisfaction is achieved mostly by aspects of family. However, there exists a possibility of at least one more type of satisfaction which pertains to both work and family domains. That is, for an

individual who has simultaneous dual work role responsibilities, the component features of the two domains--family and work--combine. This combination as experienced by the individual may result into a third category of satisfaction, designated as "interrole satisfaction." The degree of interrole satisfaction depends upon the compatibility of demands from the two domains. The higher the compatibility, the greater is the amount of interrole satisfaction experienced.

The usefulness of this construct seems more in the context of women who have homemaking role as well as earner role. In other words, role demands from work and family are simultaneous for women. But, for men it is successive; that is, work is prior to family (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Research has focused on the effects of performing multiple roles on mental and physical health. In general, these studies are based on samples of women and indicate that performing multiple roles is positively related to physical and mental health. Despite the literature available on multiple roles and health, research examining the combined effects--components such as work role characteristics and family demands--are relatively undeveloped.

Although interrole conflict which is caused by incompatibility of multiple roles has been studied extensively, it is quite surprising that very few studies (McKenry, Walters, & Murray, 1985; Osipow, 1975; Rallings and Nye, 1979; Rudd & Mckenry, 1982; Shukla & Saxena, 1988) have attempted to look for the satisfaction caused by multiplicity of roles and its determinants. However, indirect support for this notion comes from the role accumulation theory of Seiber (1974) who maintains that though the occurrence of role overload cannot be denied, there are enough compensations to give us pause in our single-minded search for the dysfunctions of multiple roles. Thus, role accumulation has implications for mental health, social stability, and orderly social change.

A comprehensive study by Ferree 1976) indicates the advantageous status of women in dual role as compared to homemakers. This provides some reasons to believe the existence of interrole satisfaction among dual role women.

A major study which employed dual work role satisfaction (as dependent measure determined by various job and family related variables) was conducted by McKenry et al. (1985). The context of the study was rural employed women. The analysis showed that factors relating to job satisfaction were the best predictors of dual work role satisfaction. Although it was expected that family variables would emerge as stronger predictors, the obtained results favored the work domain. The study had important implications for practitioners, policy makers, and researchers. More emphasis is required on vocational guidance, so that it may result into job satisfaction and consequently to dual work role satisfaction.

Few other researchers have attempted to assess the peer and family support for dual work role (e.g., Osipow, 1975; Rallings & Nye, 1979; Wesley & Wesley, 1977).

It is expected that these three types of satisfaction taken together contribute to overall satisfaction with life. Both work outside and family are work domains and satisfaction is derived out of these work domains. Therefore, in order to understand important linkages these two domains have with each other and to more global satisfactions such as interrole and life satisfactions, it is essential to understand the concept of "work."

THE CONCEPT OF WORK

The concept of "work" is multifaceted and, therefore, difficult to define in a precise manner. Even industrialized nations in the twentieth century have no

single concept of "work." Perhaps the most basic or generic definition of work is any "purposeful effort." But even this definition is not particularly helpful since purposeful may have several connotations and shades of meaning. Thus, in simple terminology, work can be defined as something which is the obverse of "nonwork" and which vary in terms of objectives, efforts, perspectives, reward systems, beliefs, perceptions, values, cultures, time, place, or societies.

The importance of work in the lives of individuals lies in the fact that it occupies a person's time to a far greater extent than any other behavior pattern. Secondly, there is an element of reciprocity or exchange in the sense that work is always contingent upon some form of reward pattern. These rewards may be extrinsic such as money, or they may be intrinsic such as satisfaction (Steers & Porter, 1987). Moreover, work may also be a source of social status, because it often transcends from its defined boundaries and, hence, affects the overall lifestyle of an individual.

Work is important to the extent that an individual attaches psychological meaning to it. Depending upon the meaning attached, it can be a source of identity, self-esteem, and self-actualization, on the one hand, and may cause frustration, boredom, feeling of meaninglessness, and dejection, on the other.

Smith (1965), while acknowledging the importance of work in all the spheres of life, contends that work is not only the central subject matter of industrial relations but also the primary determinant of human conditions. He also states that the work pervades almost all other domains of life. It is through the economic influence of the job that the ordinary individual's needs and status in society are determined and governed.

Though studies have identified the meaning and relevance of work, very rarely have they identified the need to explore work dimensions in domains other than the paid employment. Consistent with this view, almost all the researchers have considered the job outside home--which is paid, and within the premises of a

formal organization.

Work in the area of family is equally essential and worth studying. Few researchers have empirically demonstrated that dimensions identified in the context of paid work can very well be studied and applied to the context of family (Pleck & Lang, 1978; Rousseau, 1978).

Thus, two work domains may exist: paid and unpaid. Paid work is unanimously men's major contribution to their family's economic well-being. However, added to this, their participation in unpaid family work is generally to help their wives with household chores, childcare, and performing traditionally male tasks. Women's economic contributions have been more broadly based, including a combination of paid employment and various types of unpaid family work. These unpaid family tasks directly or indirectly contribute to family economy and other well-being. This includes childcare and housework, participation in their husbands' work, and the management of limited resources inside and outside the family.

The consideration of all these factors may lead a person to believe that the two work dimensions are to some extent similar because family, though high on expressive dimension (Parsons, 1949), has a formal structure, rule based policies to be followed, supervision, climate, etc. In the same way job, though high on instrumental dimension (Parsons, 1949), has relationships, understanding, and consideration dimensions. In view of this, it may be expected that a fit between various dimensions of work and family would lead to more promising outcomes for dual-careerists.

The two domains are also related to each other in the sense that work aspects affect family domain and family aspects affect work domain (Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Voydanoff, 1988a,b). Thus, to understand the concept of work completely, it is important to identify the linkages of work and family domains.

Work-Family Interface

As has been described earlier, work and family are the two most important spheres in which work finds its expression and which constitute the major portion of an individual's life. The current increase in the interpenetration of work and family research refers to the requirement of some of the major changes in the nature and definition of work and family.

The relationship between work and family is being studied extensively for the last two decades (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Kanter, 1977; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980). Researchers have shown their interest in the ways people manage their involvement in multiple roles (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Kanter, 1977). Behavior in work situation is influenced by outside factors such as stressful family situations (Bhagat, McQuaid, Lindholm, & Segovis, 1985), a person's familial role (Kanter, 1977), and the degree of satisfaction with nonwork life (Crosby, 1984). Similarly, evidence exists documenting the impact of work variables on individual's personal and family life (see such reviews as those of Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Burke & Bradshaw, 1981). Job demands and job stress, for example, have been found to be negatively influencing marital and life satisfaction (Burke, Weir, & DuWors, 1980), family experiences (Burke & Weir, 1981), and spousal well-being (Burke, Weir, & DuWors, 1980).

In sum, sufficient information exists concerning the interrelatedness or interdependence of work and family domains. However, these discoveries generate more problems than solutions (Lambert, 1990). Researchers have not yet been able to define the processes through which work and family characteristics relate to each other. Wilensky (1960), however, has provided certain models of work-family interface but the models lack sufficient empirical support.

In the absence of proper understanding of these processes, it is difficult to provide effective coping strategies to help employees in two roles. It is rather assumed that these policies help workers balance work and family responsibilities while at least not interfering with their productivity, and at best, enhancing it. Therefore, as a first step, it is useful to develop an insight into the processes linking work and family lives. And, as a next step, one can ascertain effective strategies for helping workers find satisfaction in both their work and personal roles.

Theoretical Approaches

Though the area of work-family interface is a recent one and lacks any well established theoretical frameworks, there exist few process theories which attempt to explain the complex interplay of work and family. Wilensky (1960) was the pioneer in the field who acknowledged three processes: segmentation, compensation, and spillover. However, in a recent review consisting of existing literature on work-family relationships, Sheldon and Kathleen (1990) identified five approaches or process theories which try to understand the way work and family associate. These are partially based on Wilensky's (1960) work and partially derived from the studies done by other researchers and explanations provided by them (Burke & Bradshaw, 1981; Champoux, 1978; Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Kando & Summers, 1971; Kanter, 1977; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976; Piotrkowski, 1978; Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1979). These processes are described below.

Segmentation Process

The earliest view regarding work-family interface suggests that work and home are segmented by the individual in order to meet the demands of the two

aspects. Thus, when the two work dimensions are separated from each other, a person may function successfully in one without having the impact of other dimension on it (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976; Piotrkowski, 1978, 1979). Family is considered high on expressive dimension (e.g., intimacy and affect), whereas work is supposed to be instrumental having characteristics like compensation and formal structure (Piotrkowski, 1978). A direct support for this formulation comes from the study by London, Crandall, & Seals (1977), who studied the relationship between work and leisure. The results showed that both domains were unrelated.

Others who have obtained evidence for segmentation process are Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers (1976), Haavio-Mannila (1971), and Iris and Barrett (1972).

The segmentation approach has not received much empirical support. Even though its contribution to understanding the phenomena cannot be undermined.

Compensation Process

This view postulates an inverse relationship between work and family. The origin of this theory comes from Dubin's work (1967, p. 68), who suggests that industrial man seems to perceive his life as having its center outside of work for his intimate human relationships and for his feelings of enjoyment, happiness, and worth.

Thus, the individual makes up in one for whatever is missing in the other (Evans & Bartolome, 1984). This theory provides explanation as to why some workers are more involved in their work when dissatisfied with their family. Various components of this theory have also been identified (Kando & Summers, 1971) which are as follow.

Supplemental Compensation. It occurs if the individual perceives his/her desirable states or components absent in one aspect, then he/she tries to derive them in the other context.

Reactive Compensation. Deprivations experienced in work, for example, are compensated for in family activities like resting from fatigue.

Shock Absorption. Activities at home provide shock absorptions for dissatisfaction and frustration at work, and vice versa (Crosby, 1984).

Conflict Theory

Researchers working in the field of interrole conflict, overload, and stress have proposed that satisfaction or success in one dimension is at the cost of the other. Conflict occurs because of the incompatibility of distinct norms, requirements, and standards between work and family (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976).

Three forms of work-family conflict were identified by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985): (a) time-based conflict, in which time demands of one role interfere with participation in the other role; (b) strain-based conflict, where the stress symptoms (e.g., fatigue) produced in one role intrude into the other role; and (c) behavior-based conflict, in which behaviors that are functional in one role are dysfunctional in the other role.

Interrole conflict and its relationship to overload and stress has been studied by researchers mainly in the context of work and family (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Burke, 1986; Burke & Bradshaw, 1981; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Jones & Butler, 1980; Suchet & Barling, 1986).

The multiplicity of role pressures experienced by dual role bearers particularly women in today's society lead them to experience conflicting situation which is almost inevitable. Probably, this is the assumption on which the

research in this area has examined at length the causes and consequences of work-family conflict. However, despite our little knowledge of this area, additional research in several directions is warranted.

Instrumental Theory

This theory provides a mean-end relationship between work and family. One environment is a means through which desired objectives are obtained in the other. For example, successful work life leads to a happy family life and serves as means by which to get some of the pleasures of life (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976).

Spillover Process

This is the most popular and well advanced view regarding the relationship between work and family. This formulation postulates that effects of one environment spill or get carried over to the other environment.

It has been observed that workers carry experiences, feelings, attitudes, and skills from work to their family life (Belsky, Perry-Jenkins, & Crouter, 1985; Crouter, 1984a, Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985; Piotrkowski, 1979; Piotrkowsky & Crits-Christoph, 1981), and vice versa (Belsky et al., 1985; Crouter, 1984b).

Two types of spillover have been identified. The first is known as positive spillover which occurs when skills, attitudes, and positive experiences of one domain are utilized or transferred into the other work domain. Crouter (1984a) identified instances where workers in jobs requiring their participation in decision-making began to use their newly developed skills at home to deal more effectively with children.

The second kind of spillover (i.e., negative spillover) occurs when problems, conflicts, stress, and tensions in one dimension affects the other aspect of life. Research in this area has resulted in several extensions and refinements of this

process theory (Sheldon & Kathleen, 1990). One important extension has been made by Payton-Miyazaki and Brayfield (1976), who maintain that the notion of work is additive--that is, feelings at work get added to the feelings about life in general. Thus, job satisfaction results in increment of life satisfaction, for example.

Another refinement is that work alienation or negative feelings influence life in general directly and, thus, job dissatisfaction decreases satisfaction with life in general.

Yet another development of the concept suggests a cognitive/behavioral view of work. That is, a job is a socializing force which enables the worker to learn skills, values, expectations, contingencies, and social philosophies that get carried over into family or other domains.

Staines (1980), on the basis of a literature review, concludes that research contains substantial evidence of spillover process. Crouter (1984b) and Belsky et al. (1985) suggest that people can simultaneously experience both types of spillover. Family, for example, might have positive influence on work but work might spill over its negative effects on family, or vice versa.

In sum, spillover theory of work-family linkages has received extensive testing and support. Yet, Lambert (1990) feels that this process alongwith compensation and segmentation have only a face validity. Thus, more rigorous analysis of the process is still required.

Accommodation Process

Bailyn (1970), in the context of dual career families, talks of accommodation by husbands and wives in order to balance responsibilities. This concept has been further utilized by Lambert (1990) in the area of understanding work-family relationships. She has emphasized the need to look at the problem of work-family linkage differently with reference to working women.

Research literature is limited to the experience of men and, thus, is often based on the assumption that work is, or at least should be, their primary life interest (Lambert, 1990). In the case of working women, it is observed that involvement in work is cut down in order to meet the greater demands in family. In this way, women can easily accommodate demands of one domain with the other.

Bailyn (1978) defines accommodation as "the degree to which work demands are fitted into family requirements" (p. 159). An individual may be placed anywhere along a continuum of extreme accommodation to extreme lack of accommodation.

The process of accommodation is causally a reverse of the process of compensation. That is, because of high involvement in one area the person has to cut short his/her involvement in the other in order to meet the combined demands of the two. However, in the case of compensation, because of low involvement in one, the person becomes more involved in the other (Lambert, 1990; Schein, 1978).

This process explains why some workers are more involved in their work than in their family. The reason could be that jobs having opportunities for personal growth and meaning for the individual and having extrinsic incentives are more motivating for individuals than jobs lacking these aspects. These jobs require devotion from the side of the individual and, thus, he/she cuts down his/her involvement in family in order to meet the job demands.

This model also contains face validity but lacks empirical support, so far as work-family linkage is concerned. Further, the causality in terms of involvement in either one or the other area casts doubt on the viability of the model. However, future research might come up with definite explanations and empirical data.

Comments

All the process theories mentioned above have face validity. That is, they seem plausible and logical when they are analyzed separately, and when used as post hoc explanations of obtained findings. However, two observations are apparent concerning these processes:

- (i) These models attempt to explain the process of linking of work and family.
- (ii) None of them has made assumptions about the specific direction of influence. That is, they consider work and family as mutually interdependent.

The processes of segmentation, compensation/accommodation, and spillover have recently been viewed as overlapping. This is because these processes occur simultaneously, thereby overlapping rather than competing with one another (Lambert, 1990). The evidence for more than one process occurring at a time is provided by Campbell et al. (1976), Piotrkowski (1979), Staines (1980), and others. It is, therefore, necessary to delineate these processes in order to understand the phenomena completely. One suggestion made by Lambert (1990) is that investigators should attempt to uncover the conditions and circumstances under which these processes operate and the extent to which they overlap.

Near et al. (1979, 1980) provide a very comprehensive conceptual scheme for understanding these processes. According to them, the work-family linkages can be understood better if the two domains are broken down into two component factors: (a) objective components (or structural characteristics of work and family) and (b) subjective components (or reactions of the individual to these structural components which include their attitudes and behavioral responses).

Keeping this distinction in mind, it is possible to observe the circumstances under which these processes occur. Segmentation views work and family as independent fields. Thus, the effect of worklife, for example, is limited to work behaviors such as job satisfaction and involvement. They do not influence outcomes in the other sphere.

Compensation and accommodation are characterized by the degree of involvement. If the conditions of work/family are unsatisfying, then the person will be more involved in the other domain. However, in accommodation, objective job/family conditions result in high involvement, thus lowering the level of involvement in the other sphere.

As conflict theory emphasizes the incompatibility of demands from work and family, it may be assumed that objective conditions of one domain would cause overload, stress subjective reactions in the other domain. Therefore, the cross-domain subjective effect is of conflict, negative feelings, etc.

According to instrumental theory, if objective conditions are perceived favorable, then it should result in satisfaction and other positive outcomes for the other domain. However, since this approach propagates a mean-end relationship between job and family, it cannot result in negative outcomes.

Regarding spillover assumption, it can be direct or indirect. Indirect spillover occurs when objective conditions of one domain relate to outcomes in the other domain through subjective reactions from the same domain. However, direct spillover occurs when structural aspects of one area predict outcomes in the other sphere directly without being moderated by subjective reactions of that area.

In closing, it should be acceptable that the classification of objective and subjective conditions seems quite useful if one attempts to verify these process theories of work-family relationships. The delineation of these processes should facilitate to observe the amount of overlap these processes have. There is a

possibility of more than one process operating at the same time. It may be that a few job and household characteristics operate according to a particular process. Hence, by specifying the processes, one can identify the circumstances under which certain processes dominate. Moreover, it may also result in developing effective coping strategies in order for the employees to cope better with work-family demands.

WORK-FAMILY NEXUS AND SATISFACTION

Investigators have shown as to how work and family relate to each other in terms of both objective conditions and behavioral reactions from them. Behavioral reactions from work and nonwork are mainly studied in terms of job and nonwork satisfaction. Rather, the degree of independence of work and nonwork satisfaction and their contribution to life satisfaction are emerging as an active research interest because these two are integral part of overall life satisfaction (Rice et al., 1979).

A recent review by Kabanoff (1980) contrasted compensation, segmentation, and spillover models of the work-nonwork linkage and offered suggestions for research methods and theoretical frameworks needed to disentangle the relative effects of factors in each domain.

Near et al. (1980) have also offered a review examining the relationship between social systems of nonwork and work environment. They found that subjective variables were better predictors of life satisfaction than objective variables. These findings were explained in terms of the notion that an individual's experienced quality of life depends heavily upon his or her expectations and satisfaction with conditions of that life, even if the real nature of those conditions may or may not be so (Campbell et al., 1976).

In another study by Near et al. (1983), it was concluded that job satisfaction explained a total of 5 to 10% of the variance in overall life satisfaction. However, the best predictor of life satisfaction was the interaction of job and extra workplace satisfaction. Similar results were obtained by others (e.g., Iris & Barrett, 1972; Kornhauser, 1965; London et al., 1977). This statistical interaction between work and nonwork satisfaction provides further support for the existence of interrole satisfaction.

Several recent studies have focused specifically on the relationship of work satisfaction to nonwork satisfaction. Orpen (1978) reported that directionality in the relationship of work to nonwork is from work to nonwork. However, contrary to the Orpen (1978) and Near et al. (1980) findings, Schmitt and Mellon (1980) reported that life satisfaction contributed more to job satisfaction for both men and women.

Such contradictory findings call for much richer theory and more complex contingency frameworks. Dubin and Champoux (1977) suggested that job satisfaction can be clearly predicted from clusters of an individual's central life interests. Individual's score on overall interest were significantly related with the degree and focus of satisfaction derived from the work context.

Most of the studies employed static correlation or contrasted life and nonwork satisfaction with job satisfaction. Except for few studies, inferences about the direction of causality were not made. Moreover, these studies do not offer definite explanations why does job (or life) exert more influence on life (or job) satisfaction.

THE PROPOSED RESEARCH

The issues discussed in earlier sections throw light on the complex interplay of relationships between work and family domains in relation to both

objective and subjective conditions. Several viewpoints in the form of theoretical propositions have attempted to enhance the understanding of the phenomena. However, in an attempt to understand the problem of work-nonwork relations, one faces a number of problems. Some of these problems can be listed as follows.

(i) Though it has been established that work and nonwork domains are related, the very nature of this relationship has not been clearly identified.

(ii) The causal path of these relationships has not been clearly specified. Few researchers maintain that structural conditions relate to behavioral reactions directly, whereas others assume that it is mediated by certain other variables.

(iii) Researchers have not paid much attention to personal aspects (self-related variables) in studying the work-family relationship. Rice et al. (1980) maintain a similar view and suggest that self definition of one's life, role and self esteem are a major part of social psychological bases for such relationships. Lawler (1973) likewise points out the necessity for organizations to recognize the need for treating employees separately and placing them in the environment that fits their unique needs, skills, and aptitudes.

(iv) The problems exist regarding the test of models, data analysis, and research designs. Studies have attempted to compute correlational analysis on the data collected at one point of time in a cross-sectional survey. More sophisticated designs and analytical strategies are needed to identify the relationships. Longitudinal studies, employing multivariate data analyses, might prove far superior to the zero-order correlation analysis in this context.

A careful review of the literature provides an understanding that strong conceptual developments are equally essential as are other issues (e.g., methodology). Some of the research questions which might be raised now are the following:

(1) On the work-family relationship, do aspects of one domain contribute larger (or smaller) variance in the same domain or in the other domain?

(2) How much variations do they account for in interaction with each other, i.e., work variables in interaction with family variables? Is this variation larger than the variation explained by direct relationships?

(3) How strongly do work or family, or work-family variables predict broader concepts, i.e., interrole and life satisfaction?

(4) What is the role of individual differences in predicting the work-family relationship?

(5) Whether models explaining work-family relationships are competing models or are they overlapping, thus existing simultaneously for the individual?

(6) Do women in India show the same pattern of work-family relationships as do women abroad?

(7) What are the differences due to some situational variables such as occupational level of the individual.

The present study addresses itself to some of the above mentioned issues. The relevance of this investigation is two-fold:

(a) The study employs a sample of urban working class women in India. Although, in the past two decades, interest has surged in the causes and consequences of women's involvement in paid work, most of these studies of wife/mother employment in general have been conceived of as the consequences of female employment on their marital relationship and on children (Blood, 1965; Blood & Wolfe, 1960). Until recently, very few studies have focused on the way women balance their work and family lives, and the influence of their employment on their personal life and perceptions (Combs & Axelson, 1978; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Also, only a few studies have attempted to study the satisfaction aspect of working women in relation to their work-family interaction as opposed

to those studies which adopted more negative outlook and explored stress and role conflict.

(b) The study employs a few self-related variables in order to explore the work-family aspects in relation to satisfaction. Hence, apart from assessing direct relationships, an interactive framework is developed. This study employs three moderator variables which are career orientation, self image, and locus of control. Career orientation refers to the importance placed on the work role in comparison to other life roles. Bailyn (1970) has distinguished career and family oriented partners in two career relationships. Though little research has employed this variable as moderator, it might be assumed that individual's perception of various aspects of work life may be affected by one's career orientation and consequently may influence the way it relates to affective responses.

Self image in the form of self esteem and self perception has been studied frequently in the psychological research. It has also been shown as an important moderating variable in various work attitudes and behaviors (Korman, 1970, 1976; Mitchell, 1979). These studies have found that self esteem is positively correlated with job performance in that high self esteem persons will choose those jobs and task roles that are consistent with their self cognitions. They also find their task assignments most satisfying. Recently, a study by Brook (1991) has shown that positive self appraisal strongly correlates with the perception of job characteristics. It has also been found to relate to satisfaction with nonwork.

Although no research has been conducted which directly tested the moderating effect of locus of control, it might be expected that locus of control may also be a key moderator of the work-family attitudes and satisfaction. Internals might be expected to be more responsive to various content aspects of work and family, because they are more likely to see the direct linkage

between various aspects of work-family and satisfaction.

Besides these moderators, occupational level of the respondents has also been seen as an important moderator in the present study. Although research in this area is largely unexplored, existing studies in other areas have acknowledged it as an important variable (Armstrong, 1971; Centers & Bugental, 1966; House, Filley, & Kerr, 1971; Jurgenson, 1947; Sims & Szilagyi, 1974, 1975). House et al. (1971) and Sims and Szilagyi (1975) found occupational level to be an essential moderator between the relationship of leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction.

Thus, the broad objectives of the present study are:

- (1) to observe the within domain linkages of work-family variables as they relate to satisfaction;
- (2) to observe the cross-domain relationships (i.e., work variables) as related to family satisfaction, and family variables as they relate to work satisfaction;
- (3) to assess the relationship of work-family variables with interrole and life satisfaction;
- (4) to see the moderating effects of individual or self related variables in all possible relationships between predictors and criterion variables;
- (5) to observe the effect of occupational status on the relationship of predictors with criterion variables.

The proposed research is summarized in Figure 1.1. As is clear, two similar sets of variables have been utilized in two domains--the work and the family--in order to explore the linkages with satisfaction. These two sets of variables pertain to content and context dimensions. Content variables are those relating to actual job (in work) and role (in family) of the individual in an environment. However, contextual characteristics are those which relate to

one's surroundings or environment in which the woman works.

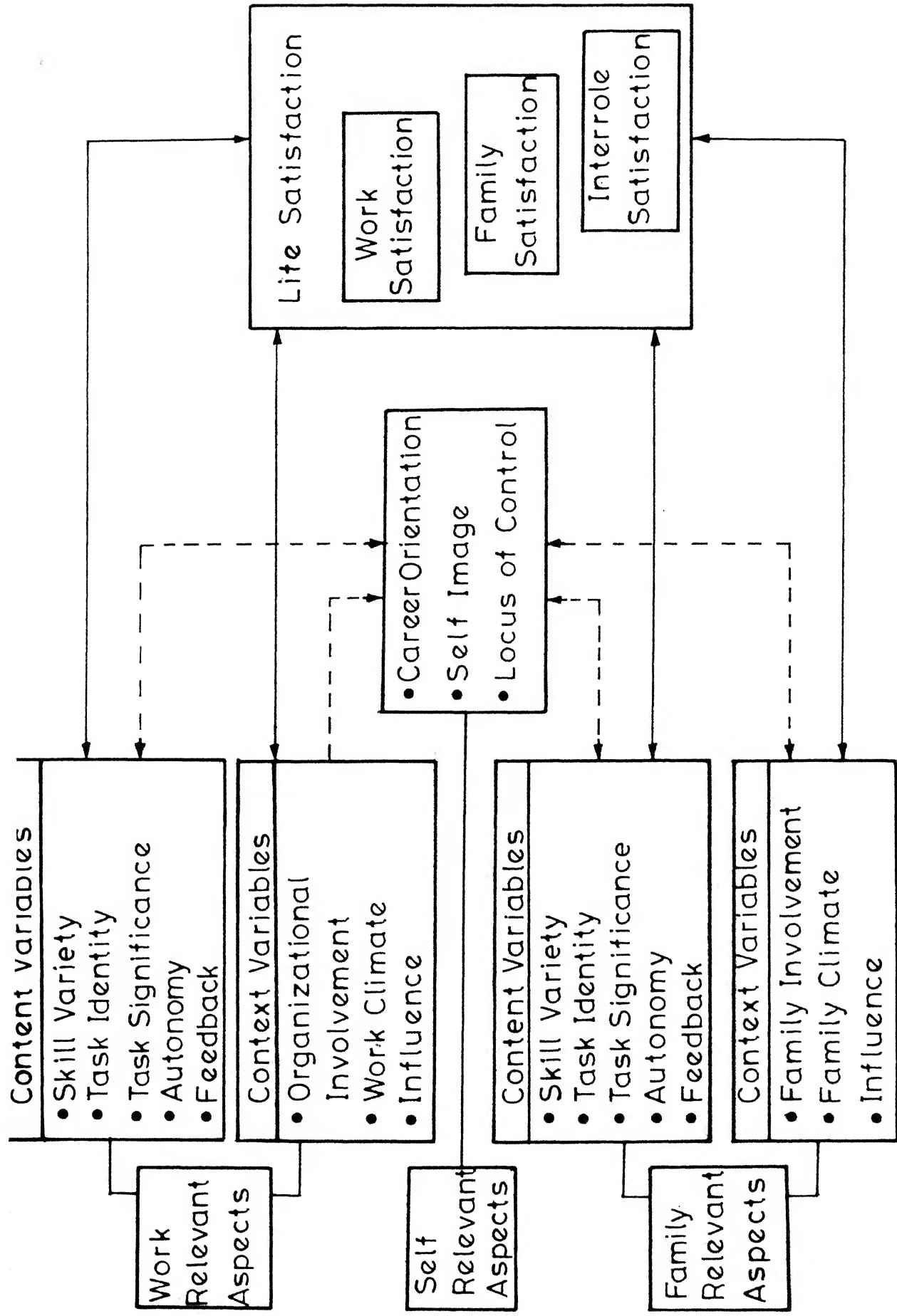
It is expected that work-family content and context variables would predict satisfaction in their respective domain and also in the other or across domain. Further, besides direct relationships in cross-domain effects, it is hypothesized that work-family aspects would interact in predicting criterion measures.

Moreover, individual characteristics are assumed to moderate the predictors-criteria relationships.

Apart from work and family satisfactions, two more outcome variables have been included, which are interrole and life satisfaction (see Figure 1.1). It is expected that those work-family variables which relate to work and family satisfactions would also predict interrole and life satisfactions. Besides this, individual differences due to self image, career orientation, and locus of control are expected to moderate the predictor-criterion relationship.

Other than those variables mentioned earlier, few demographic variables are also incorporated in the study. Investigators have emphasized the need to look at those variables to understand and predict psychological dimensions in a better way. Though studying these variables is not the primary aim of the present study, and though few of them are controlled at the initial stage, it is proposed that they might show their influence on the criterion variables. This may be due to the post hoc nature of the research.

In summary, all the possible relationships will be explored on the basis of this plan of the research. However, the specific objectives and hypotheses will be dealt with in details in subsequent chapters.



Chapter 2

METHODOLOGY

Contents

An overview.	31
The Sample and Procedure.	31
The Instruments	37
Satisfaction Measures	39
Work Context Measure	43
Family Context Measures.	45
Job Dimensions.	47
Family Work Dimensions	50
Self-Related Measures	53
Personal Data Blank.	57
Summary.	57
The Statistical Analysis	68

An Overview

The present research is a step towards understanding of work and family linkages in dual career women. This objective has been achieved by conducting an empirical study. The previous chapter threw light on the state-of-the-art of work-family relationships. While doing so, theoretical discussions were also made.

This chapter is an attempt to capture the investigation strategies that were followed in the study. It contains primarily three major sections which deal separately with the sample and procedure, the instruments used, and the statistical techniques used to analyze the data collected. Under the head of the instruments, several subsections are made which contain information regarding the various measures employed in the study.

THE SAMPLE AND PROCEDURE

The sample consisted of 300 female employees working in various public and semi-private organizations of the cities of Lucknow and Kanpur in Northern-India. The sample represented mainly seven professions--doctors, scientists, engineers, bank officers, college teachers, and other officers in the higher professional group ($n=150$); and clerks, typists, stenographers, technicians, and school teachers in the lower group ($n=150$). The respondents voluntarily participated in the study.

In order for participation in the study, the respondents met the following criteria: (1) they were married and having at least one child; (2) they were from intact families (that is, living with their husband and children); (3) their children were below eighteen years of age; (4) they were at least high school; and (5) they were working in their present position in present organization for at least one year as a full-time worker.

To understand various relationships of psychological aspects, a survey questionnaire was prepared which contained various tests and measures. These measures were either based on scales used in previous research or specifically constructed for the present purposes. Since the attention was paid to the representation of several different but major occupational categories instead of choosing specific organizations, people in those particular occupations were contacted. The reason for doing so was that occupational status (i.e., higher and lower) of the respondents was a major categorical variable in the present study. The status was determined by the professions of the respondents. Thus, the two samples of women were those working at managerial or executive levels, and those working at rank-and-file levels.

Respondents were contacted both at their workplace and at their residence at their convenience. The questionnaires to be filled were distributed among them and were collected back as soon as they got completed. The respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire totally at their convenience and thus no time limit was imposed. However, on an average, they took two to three days in returning the questionnaire. If they had any difficulty in comprehension, it was resolved then and there. Respondents were assured complete anonymity and were requested to supply their sincere and frank responses. Altogether around 410 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 300 were returned duly completed. Thus, the total response rate was a little over 75%.

Table 2.1 gives an account of eight professions selected for the study and the distribution of respondents in two categories: higher and lower levels. The higher sample comprised over 27% of scientists followed by college teachers and bank officers. In the lower group, those working in clerical jobs formed 54% of the total sample and 46% were teachers in various schools.

Table 2.1

Distribution of Respondents in Different Occupations at Two Levels

Occupations	No. of Respondents	%
<hr/>		
<u>Higher Level (n = 150)</u>		
Scientists	41	27.4
College Teachers	25	16.6
Bank Officers	25	16.6
Engineers	18	12.0
Doctors	22	14.6
Officers (others)	19	12.8
<hr/>		
<u>Lower Level (n = 150)</u>		
Clerks	81	54.0
School Teachers	69	46.0
<hr/>		

Table 2.2 outlines the percentage distribution of respondents on demographic characteristics and Table 2.3 provides mean scores of these characteristics alongwith E-ratios for both the subsamples. It is clear from Table 2.2 that the majority of the respondents were in the age group of 30 years or less for the higher group, whereas the major bulk of the respondents for the lower group were in the age group of 31 to 35 years. The means for the two groups differed significantly on this variable (Table 2.3), with higher group women being older than the lower group women.

Table 2.2

Percentage Distribution of Respondents on Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Levels		Total (N=300)
	Higher (n = 150)	Lower (n = 150)	
<hr/>			
<u>Age (in years)</u>			
30 or less	16.6	12.1	28.7
31 - 35	14.3	13.7	28.0
36 - 40	12.7	13.3	26.0
41 - 45	4.3	5.0	9.3
46 or more	2.0	6.0	8.0
<u>Education</u>			
Intermediate	1.6	0.0	1.6
Bachelor's Degree	12.3	4.4	16.7
Master's Degree	19.0	16.4	35.4
Above Master's	17.3	29.0	46.3
<u>Tenure in Present Organization (in years)</u>			
1 - 5	18.7	13.6	32.3
6 - 10	16.7	13.0	29.7
11 - 15	9.0	13.0	22.0
16 or more	5.7	10.3	16.0
<u>Tenure in Present Position (in years)</u>			
1 - 5	21.7	29.3	51.0
6 - 10	18.3	5.4	23.7
11 or more	10.0	5.3	15.3
<u>Monthly Income (in rupees)</u>			
Below 2,500	2.0	27.0	29.0
Between 2,501 and 3,000	4.3	12.0	16.3
Between 3,001 and 3,500	7.0	8.3	15.3
Between 3,501 and 4,000	9.3	2.4	11.7
Between 4,001 and 4,500	6.4	0.3	6.7
Over 4,500	21.0	0.0	21.0
<u>Number of Years Married</u>			
1 - 5	12.3	15.7	28.7
6 - 10	12.4	13.3	25.7
11 - 15	13.0	11.3	24.3
16 or more	12.3	9.7	22.0

Number of Children

One	23.7	20.7	44.4
Two	21.7	24.3	46.0
Three or more	4.6	5.0	9.6

Age of the Youngest Child (in years)

1 - 3	17.0	18.3	35.3
4 - 6	10.0	10.7	20.7
7 - 9	7.0	9.0	16.0
10 - 12	8.3	6.3	14.7
13 - 15	4.0	3.6	7.6
16 - 18	3.7	2.0	5.7

The level of education was measured on a 5-point scale ranging from high school to above Master's degree. It was found that a large number of respondents were having above Master's degree (e.g., Ph.D., B.Ed.). Surprisingly, the percentage of such respondents was higher among the lower group (29%) as well. However, the overall mean score was significantly greater for the higher group (see Table 2.3).

Subjects were also asked to report their tenure in the organization. Taken together, most respondents served their organization for 5 years or less. Once again, the difference in the mean of the two groups was significant. It showed that women in the higher group had longer tenure in their present organization than those in the lower group (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3

Mean Scores and E-ratios on Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Levels		E(1,298)
	Higher (n = 150)	Lower (n = 150)	
Age	36.20	33.86	9.38 ^b
Education	4.49	4.04	25.45 ^b
Tenure in Organization	10.76	8.39	11.15 ^b
Tenure in Present Position	6.33	7.64	1.69
Income	5.79	2.47	342.41 ^b
Number of Years Married	11.51	10.02	3.91 ^a
Number of Children	1.63	1.69	0.62
Age of the Youngest Child	6.92	6.33	1.19

Note. ^ap < .05; ^bp < .01; Education and Income were rated on 5-point and 9-point scales, respectively.

As to the tenure in present positions, most of the respondents served for 5 or less number of years (Table 2.2). Those who were working for 11 or more number of years were very few (15.3%). The two groups did not differ significantly in terms of this variable, suggesting that both had more or less equal tenure in their present positions (Table 2.3).

As regards monthly income, a very large number of respondents received Rs. 2,500 or less. This group was largely constituted by those working at lower jobs (27%). However, as much as 21% of the sample was earning Rs. 4,500 or more, and all of them belonged to higher work group. As can be expected, the mean difference was found to be significant, with the higher group earning more than the lower group.

About 28.7% of the total sample were recently married (i.e., 5 or fewer than 5 years of marriage). However, the mean of higher group was greater (11.51) as compared to the mean of lower group (10.02); this difference was

Regarding the number of children, nearly half the sample had two children. The rest were having one child each; however, few of them had three or four children (9.6%). No significant difference in higher or lower group was found on this characteristic.

Age of the youngest child was a major demographic variable in the study. About 35.3% of the total women had children in the age range of 1 to 3 years, followed by those having 4 to 6 years-old children (20.7%). Very few had their children in the age range of 16 to 18 years (5.7%). The difference in the mean age of children for the two groups was not significant (Table 2.3).

Thus, except a few, the two samples differed significantly in terms of demographic variables.

THE INSTRUMENTS

The survey questionnaire booklet titled "Quality of Life" consisted of various tests and measures based on the previous studies. Before the conduction of the main study, a pilot study was carried out on a small sample ($n=50$) to assess the strength of scale characteristics of those measures which were either modified or were constructed specifically for the present purposes. On the basis of descriptive statistics (means, SDs, and intercorrelations), items were scrutinized. That is, necessary changes were made in the form of rewording some unclear items, adding few more, and deleting redundant ones.

The questionnaire for the main study was divided into six sections (see Appendix A). The first section dealt with items concerning one's self (career orientation, locus of control, and self image). Section II consisted of measures relating to one's family aspects (family characteristics, family involvement, influence, satisfaction, and climate). Section III comprised items concerning work-family interaction (interrole satisfaction). Section IV assessed workplace experiences of the respondents (job characteristics, organizational involvement,

influence, satisfaction, and climate). Section V concerned with a measure assessing overall life satisfaction in general. Finally, section VI dealt with questions relating to the biographical information of the respondents.

In order for a partial test of the construct validity, most of the measures were subjected to a varimax rotated factor analysis. Only those items were retained after factor analysis which were relevant and showed high factor loadings on only one factor. The rest of the redundant items were deleted from the main analysis. Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent (1975) have given five methods of factoring in the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) manual. Of these five methods, the most commonly used is Principal Factoring with Iterations (PA2). In the present analysis, all the measures were factorized using this method of factoring for communality and varimax rotation. This method has two major advantages over the PA1 or Principal Factoring without Iterations method. One, it automatically replaces the main diagonal elements of the correlation matrix with communality estimates. In this way, the user automatically gets the so-called inferred or desired factors. Two, it employs an iteration procedure which improves the estimates of communality. Besides, the use of varimax rotation emphasizes on cleaning up the factors rather than the variables. For each factor, varimax rotation tends to yield high loadings for a few variables and the remaining loadings in the factor are expected to be near zero. By this way, one ends up inferring factors neatly and cleanly.

The items to be retained for the final analysis after factorization were chosen on the basis of two criteria. First, the solution was constrained using the criterion of eigenvalue generally greater than 1.00, and meeting the criteria of factor loadings generally not less than .35 on the defining factor with no cross loadings greater than .25. Second, items were retained on an examination of each item's correlation with the items in the remaining factors. That is, items should be having high intercorrelation within a factor and low correlation with the

items in the remaining factors. During this preliminary analysis, Cronbach's coefficients alpha and descriptive statistics (means and SDs) were also computed. A description of the measures which were employed in the present study is given below.

Satisfaction Measures

Satisfaction with various aspects of one's life was treated as the criterion variables in the present study. Satisfaction in two work domains--work and family--was measured using a similar set of items. The two sets of items differed from each other in the extent to which they referred to the domain in question. The rationale for doing so was that employing similar scales would presumably lead us obtain scores on similar satisfaction dimensions in both the work domains. Other two satisfaction aspects used in this study were interrole satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Work Satisfaction

This scale was specifically developed to meet the present requirements of assessing a global satisfaction with one's worklife. Subjects were asked to provide their responses on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). Initially, the scale contained 6 items but after the factor analysis only 4 items were retained which formed a single factor. The scale had an eigenvalue of 2.43, with a coefficient of alpha being .83. The factor loadings for these items were found to be .78, .64, .76, and .31.

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the satisfaction measures are provided in Table 2.4.

Family Satisfaction

Family life satisfaction was measured by a scale similar to that described above. It had exactly the same items except that they referred to one's experiences to family life. Responses were taken on the same 7-point scale. A varimax rotated factor analysis yielded only those 4 items which were retained for work satisfaction scale. The eigenvalue for this scale was obtained to be 2.12, and a reliability index being .72. The factor loadings for these four items were .60, .72, .49, and .79.

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelation of the satisfaction measures are given in Table 2.4.

Interrole Satisfaction

As conceptualized in Chapter 1, it may exist or may be experienced when an individual bears dual role responsibilities. In the present context, the two roles which are of interest are one's experiences in work and in family. The purpose of having a separate measure for work-family satisfaction is to explore the possibility of simultaneous affective response from work and family. For the present purpose, a comparative measure of interrole satisfaction (with 3 items) was used. Subjects were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale (1=extremely dissatisfied; 7=extremely satisfied), the degree to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied in comparison (i) to those who had family but were not employed outside home (housewives), (ii) to those who were employed but had no family life (unmarried employed women), (iii) and to married employed men. A partial test of the construct validity was done through a varimax rotated factor analysis. The three items converged to one single factor, with an eigenvalue of 1.53 and a reliability coefficient of .54. The factor loadings obtained for the 3 items were

.65, .85, and .62. A similar item was used by McKenry, Walters, and Murray (1985).

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the satisfaction measures are provided in Table 2.4.

Life Satisfaction

The scale comprised 10 bipolar adjectives which described one's life in general. Responses were taken on a 7-point semantic-differential scale. Out of the 10 bipolar adjectives, only 7 were finally retained after factor analysis. The eigenvalue for this scale was 4.00, with a coefficient alpha of .85. The factor loadings of the retained items were .59, .48, .66, .38, .56, .68, and .50.

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of all the four satisfaction measures are provided in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4
Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations among the Satisfaction Measures (N = 300)

Satisfaction	1	2	3	4
1. Family Satisfaction	.72			
2. Work Satisfaction	.35 ^b	.83		
3. Interrole Satisfaction	.14 ^a	.45 ^b	.54	
4. Life Satisfaction	.45 ^b	.43 ^b	.03	.85
M	22.88	21.74	14.96	38.44
SD	3.88	4.62	3.79	7.22
No. of Items	4	4	3	7

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Diagonal entries indicate reliability coefficients.

Table 2.4 shows that all the satisfaction measures exhibited reliabilities well over .50, as suggested by Nunnally (1978). The range of reliability was from .54 to .85. It is also observed that, out of six possible correlations, five were significant. Only one correlation--that is, between interrole and life satisfaction--was nonsignificant. All the obtained correlations were in low to moderate range (average $r = .31$) thereby suggesting nonoverlapping variances in the satisfaction dimensions.

Table 2.5

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations among the Satisfaction Measures for the Two Samples

Satisfaction	1	2	3	4	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	α
1. Family Satisfaction	-	.30 ^b	.16 ^a	.40 ^b	22.31	4.13	.75
2. Work Satisfaction	.41 ^b	-	.15	.54 ^b	21.72	4.49	.84
3. Interrole Satisfaction	.12	.05	-	.07	14.91	3.98	.40
4. Life Satisfaction	.49 ^b	.33 ^b	.02	-	37.58	7.27	.84
<u>M</u>	23.45	21.76	15.02	39.29			
<u>SD</u>	3.54	4.76	3.61	7.09			
α	.68	.82	.60	.85			

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; The matrix above the diagonal indicates intercorrelations among the satisfaction measures for the higher group; the matrix below the diagonal indicates intercorrelations for the lower group.

Table 2.5 presents descriptive statistics, coefficients alpha, and intercorrelations of the four satisfaction measures for the two groups of women--higher and lower level. As is evident from Table 2.5, the satisfaction measures for both the groups are weakly to moderately correlated to one another, the average correlation between the measures being .24 for the lower group and .27 for the higher group. This again provides supporting evidence

that the four satisfaction measures are reasonably independent for both the groups. In the lower group, only the measure of interrole satisfaction was weakly correlated with other measures, whereas all other measures were moderately but significantly related to one another. In the higher group also, the trend was similar except that interrole satisfaction measure was related significantly to other measures. However, it was not significantly related to life satisfaction measure for this group.

Further, the scale reliabilities for these scales ranged between .60 and .85 for the lower group and between .40 and .84 for the higher group. Except for one coefficient alpha (.40) for the higher group, all other reliability indexes were well over .50.

Work Context Measures

Under this head are included all those measures that are related to employees' environment or work context.

Organizational Involvement

This aspect of one's workplace experience was measured using a scale previously used by Romzek (1985, 1989). The measure is similar to that of Etzioni's (1975) scale and represents a continuum of psychological attachment to an organization that ranges from positive affect or organizational commitment to negative affect or organizational alienation (Romzek, 1989). It contained 10 items concerning one's involvement, commitment, and loyalty to one's place of work. With an employment of varimax rotated factor analysis, only 5 items were retained which formed a single factor. The factor loadings were .71, .41, .48, .35, and .65, with an eigenvalue of 2.47. Subjects were asked to rate each

statement on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree) in terms of their agreement or disagreement with it. The reliability coefficient was obtained to be .72 which is considerably high and comparable to reliability index (α =.77) obtained by Romzek (1989).

Work Climate

A modified version of Litwin and Stringer's (1968) organizational climate questionnaire was used to tap the respondents' perception of the organizational climate. This questionnaire was modified by Schnake (1983) considering the fact that removing the affective component from responses on this instrument would improve its discriminant validity and would lead to a more objective measure of organizational climate.

For the present purposes, out of 30, only 16 items were drawn. Further, the selected items were modified in such a way that subjects would respond how they perceived the climate of their organization. This scale was proposed to measure the degree to which climate is perceived to be favorable or unfavorable--that is, the more the respondents perceive structure, participation, reward, and support present in the environment, the more the climate is favorable for them, and vice versa. Subjects rated each statement on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). The reliability index of this scale was found to be .76.

Influence

To measure the amount of influence an individual may perceive he/she has upon others or upon the environment, a scale consisting of four items was used. Responses were taken on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly

agree), indicating the degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The factor analysis constrained these four items to a single factor, with an eigenvalue of 1.49 and a reliability coefficient of .43 which is slightly lower. The possible reason could be that item intercorrelations were not very high. The factor loadings obtained for the four items were .39, .41, .42, and .39.

Family Context Measures

Under this section are included those measures that are related to one's family context.

Family Involvement

This scale was also developed and tested by Romzek (1985, 1989) alongwith the measure of organizational involvement. The scale contained 6 items concerning one's commitment, loyalty, and attachment to the family. The varimax rotated factor analysis yielded 4 significant items which formed one factor, with an eigenvalue of 1.08. The reliability index obtained for this scale by the author was .71. However, for the present sample, the index of reliability was found to be .57. The factor loadings obtained for these 4 items were .43, .52, .65, and .45. Subjects were asked to rate on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree), the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

Family Climate

Family climate was conceptualized as consisting of reward, participation structure, warmth, and support. In other words, dimensions contributing to the climate for family were the same as those for work climate. The statements of work climate measure were changed in such a way that they referred to the family domain. This scale, as with work climate measure, aimed at assessing the degree to which climate was perceived favorable in the family. There were 16 items and the responses for each of them were obtained on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). The reliability coefficient of the scale was .83, which is fairly high.

Influence

A 4-item scale similar to that of work influence was employed to assess the perceived influence of the individual in her family. Items were worded in such a way that they referred to the family domain. Subjects were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement on a 7-point scale (1= strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). One single factor emerged through factor analysis which had an eigenvalue of 2.07 and a coefficient alpha being .69. The factor loadings obtained were .50, .68, .57, and .63.

Job Dimensions

According to Hackman and Oldham's (1975) theorization, jobs in work organizations may vary in terms of five core dimensions or characteristics, namely, variety, identity, significance (experienced meaningfulness of work), autonomy (experienced responsibility of work), and feedback (knowledge of results). To measure these five dimensions, they have provided an objective instrument which is popularly known as Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

In the present context, JDS was used to tap job dimensions. It measures one more dimension, that is, "dealing with others," alongwith those described above. This measure has two parts. Part "a" contains 7 items, one dealing with each dimension (feedback from agents and feedback from work itself have been treated, separately). Part "b" has 14 items, two dealing with each characteristic. The second part differed from the first in terms of the items' structure and response categories (see Appendix A, for details).

Responses obtained on this scale were subjected to a factor analysis. Out of 21 items, only 9 were retained (see Table 2.6). These items constrained to three factors.

The first factor comprised items related to one's perceived identity and significance in the job. Besides, items of autonomy (how much independence one avails) also clustered together with these items. Since identity and significance are the expressions of perceived meaningfulness of the task, the factor was named, meaningfulness.

The second factor had items related to how much intrinsic feedback is perceived by the worker both from the job itself and from the agents. This factor was named, feedback.

The third factor contained items assessing the degree to which variety in work is experienced by the employees. This was named, variety.

Table 2.6

Factor Loadings Obtained: Job Dimensions

Items	1	<u>Factors</u>	
		2	3
How much <u>autonomy</u> is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?	<u>.40</u>	.13	.14
To what extent does your job involve doing the <u>whole</u> and <u>identifiable</u> piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by machines?	<u>.55</u>	.11	.17
In general, how <u>significant</u> or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well- being of other people?	<u>.32</u>	.03	.15
The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.	.15	-.03	<u>.45</u>
The job is quite simple and repetitive.	-.01	.17	<u>.71</u>
The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any feedback about how well I am doing in my work.	.05	<u>.45</u>	.16
The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.	<u>.62</u>	.01	-.03
The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.	.10	<u>.56</u>	-.09

The job gives me considerable opportunity .58 -.02 -.06
for independence and freedom in how I do the
work.

Eigenvalue	3.08	1.47	0.95
% of variance	14.7	7.0	4.5

Note. N = 300; Factor 1 = Meaningfulness; Factor 2 = Feedback; Factor 3 = Variety.

The obtained factors have somewhat different pattern from the original theorization. That is, instead of autonomy emerging as a separate factor, variety emerged as an independent dimension. Autonomy clustered with identity and significance in place of variety. This suggests that there is a possibility of the existence of lesser number of dimensions instead of five. Some (Fried & Ferris, 1986; Gaines & Jermier, 1983; O'Reilly, Parlette, & Bloom, 1980; Sekaran & Trafton, 1978) investigators have noted that the vague boundaries across skill variety, significance, and autonomy allow the permeability of one dimension into another. Dunham, Aldog, and Brief (1977) also provide support for lesser number of characteristics. Hence, in the presence of such studies, it is difficult to claim the dimensionality of job characteristics, as have Hackman and Oldham claimed. However, they themselves have made certain allowances regarding the overlap of five job dimensions.

These three job dimensions in the present analysis accounted for a total of 26.2% of the variance. Descriptive statistics, coefficients alpha, and intercorrelations among the factors are given in Table 2.7. The coefficient alpha was found to be .66 for the first factor (meaningfulness). However, it was .43 for the other two factors (i.e., feedback and variety). The reason of low reliability for the last two factors could be that each is based on just two items. The average intercorrelation among factors was found to be .14, indicating a great deal of independence among the three factors.

Table 2.7

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of Job Dimensions.

Dimensions	1	2	3
1. Meaningfulness	.66		
2. Feedback	.18 ^b	.43	
3. Variety	.15 ^b	.08	.43
<u>M</u>	24.31	8.80	8.43
<u>SD</u>	5.60	2.65	2.82

Note. $N = 300$; ^b $p < .05$; Diagonal entries indicate reliability coefficients.

Family Work Dimensions

In order to look for similar psychological dimensions existing in two work areas (that is, paid work and family work), a scale (with 21 items) was constructed to assess family work dimensions. It was exactly the same as the JDS except for few changes in terminology such as "family," "family members," and "husband," in place of "job," "co-workers," and "superior," respectively. In this way, it referred to family environment. Such attempt has been made in other studies as well (e.g., Rousseau, 1978).

The response categories were also changed in order to suit the statements (see Appendix A). Responses were obtained on a 7-point scale (1= to almost no extent; 7=to a great extent). The factor analysis constrained to 3 clean factors, with 10 significant items. Table 2.8 presents the factor loadings obtained.

The first factor consisted of items related to feedback or knowledge of results obtained in the family by other family members and by doing the work itself. This factor was named, feedback.

The second factor contained items of significance, identity, and variety in family work. Since these three characteristics are components of experienced meaningfulness of the task (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), this factor was named, meaningfulness.

The last factor was made up of two items assessing the degree of independence and autonomy as perceived by those who are in the family role. This factor was named, autonomy.

Table 2.8

Factor Loadings Obtained: Family Work Dimensions

Items	<u>Factors</u>		
	1	2	3
My work at home itself provides me the information about how well I am doing my work.	<u>.49</u>	.24	-.06
Members of my family very often let me know how well I am performing my role in family.	<u>.63</u>	.10	.07
My work in family requires me to do many different things, using a variety of my skills and talents.	.22	<u>.58</u>	.15
My work in family has an obvious beginning and end. That is, my work is whole and identifiable.	.20	<u>.46</u>	.10
I am allowed to make decisions on my own about how to manage household and related things.	.20	.08	<u>.57</u>
My husband often lets me know how well he thinks I am performing the job.	<u>.56</u>	.19	.25

CENTRAL LIBRARY
I. I. T., KANPUR

Acc. No. A.117206

My role in family denies me any chance to use any personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	.03	.04	<u>.55</u>
My family role is such that other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	.11	<u>.50</u>	-.01
Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	<u>.32</u>	.04	.04
My role requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills and talents.	.10	<u>.39</u>	-.09

Eigenvalue	3.90	1.32	1.02
% of variance	18.6	6.3	4.8

Note. $N = 300$; Factor 1 = Feedback; Factor 2 = Meaningfulness; Factor 3 = Autonomy.

Table 2.9 gives an account of descriptive statistics, coefficients alpha, and intercorrelations among the factors. The reliability coefficients for the obtained factors, respectively, were .60, .57, and .54. The average correlation among the factors was found to be .27. These correlations ranged between .17 and .36 which are low to moderate, thereby suggesting the independence of subscales.

Table 2.9

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of Family Work Dimensions

Dimensions	1	2	3
1. Feedback	.60 ^b		
2. Meaningfulness	.36 ^b	.57 ^b	
3. Autonomy	.29 ^b	.17 ^b	.54
M	19.37	18.87	15.35
SD	4.08	4.24	3.66

Note. $N = 300$; ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Diagonal entries indicate reliability coefficients.

Self-Related Measures

Below are given a brief description of dispositional measures which were employed in the present study. It was assumed that these personality variables would moderate relationships between predictors and criterion variables.

Career Orientation

This aspect of one's self was measured through a scale specifically constructed to meet the present requirements. It consisted of 6 items varying from one's high to low career orientation. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree) the degree of their agreement or disagreement with each statement. As expected, factor analysis with varimax rotation for the obtained data revealed a single factor. However, out of six items, only 4 were retained with loadings greater than .35. The

eigenvalue obtained for this factor was 1.39 and an index of reliability was .63. The factor loadings obtained for these items were .35, .66, .65, and .53.

Self Image

Items for this scale were drawn from the measures used in the studies of Pendleton, Poloma, and Garland (1980) and Gupta and Ganguli (1982). The items, however, were modified--few were reworded, another few were dropped altogether, and a few more were added--to construct the scale. Subjects were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree) the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. All in all there were 6 items, out of which factor analysis retained only 4 items. These items formed a single factor, with an eigenvalue of 1.32 and a reliability coefficient of .59. Factor loadings obtained for these items were .66, .72, .31, and .44.

Locus of Control

The scale (Levenson & Miller, 1976) consisted of 24 items measuring three factorially independent subscales: internality, chance externality, and powerful others externality. Subjects rated on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree) the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

However, unlike the original scale, the present data revealed only two factorially independent subscales--chance and powerful others--both of which measure external locus of control. None of the internal locus of control items was found to load significantly on any factor. This suggests that internal locus of control does not configure in the minds of this particular sample of women. Out of 24, only 14 items were retained. Factor loadings with their eigenvalues

and percentages of variance are presented in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10

Factor Loadings Obtained: Locus of Control

Items	<u>Factors</u>	
	1	2
What happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	<u>.34</u>	-.02
Many times there is no chance of protecting myself from bad luck.	-.06	<u>.40</u>
When I get what I want, it is usually because I am lucky.	.10	<u>.32</u>
Even though I might have good ability, I will never become a leader without seeking the approval of those in positions of power.	<u>.45</u>	.23
I have found that what is going to happen will happen.	.08	<u>.43</u>
My life is mostly controlled by people more powerful than me.	<u>.40</u>	.03
Whether or not I get into an accident is mostly a matter of luck.	.13	<u>.58</u>
People like me have little chance of protecting our personal interests or welfare from forceful social groups.	<u>.57</u>	.23
To get what I want I have to please the people above me.	<u>.57</u>	.18

It is not a good idea for me to plan too far ahead because too many things depend on luck.	.24	<u>.56</u>
Becoming a leader depends on whether I am lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	.24	<u>.47</u>
If important people did not like me, I probably would not make many friends.	<u>.31</u>	.10
Whether or not I get into an accident depends mostly on the people around me.	<u>.39</u>	.14
In order for my plans to work, I make sure that they fit in with the plans of people above me.	<u>.48</u>	-.01
<hr/>		
Eigenvalue	3.25	1.62
% of variance	13.50	6.80

Note. N = 300; Factor 1 = Powerful Others; Factor 2 = Chance.

The first factor contained items related to one's beliefs in external powerful forces or people and hence was named, powerful others.

The second factor consisted of items related to one's beliefs that actions are guided by fate or chance, accidental events, etc. Therefore, this factor was called chance.

Descriptive statistics, coefficients alpha and the correlation between the two factors have been provided in Table 2.11. It is clear that both the factors show reliabilities well over .50. Further, the correlation was found to be .39 which is moderate, indicating a reasonable level of independence in the two subscales.

Table 2.11

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Correlation of Locus of Control Dimensions

Dimensions	1	2
1. Powerful Others	.73	
2. Chance	.39 ^b	.63
M	25.59	25.84
SD	8.12	6.19

Note. $N = 300$; ^b $p < .01$; Diagonal enteries indicate reliability coefficients.

Personal Data Blank

Single item measures were used to assess various demographic characteristics of the respondents. These items provided information regarding age, education, tenure in present position and organization, designation, monthly income, number of years married, number of children, and age of the youngest child. Because these measures were single item measures and were meaningful in themselves, no factor analysis was performed.

Summary

Table 2.12 provides information regarding descriptive statistics, coefficients alpha, and number of items for each scale used in the study ($N = 300$). Similarly, Table 2.13 gives an account of the same statistics for both the samples (higher and lower groups), separately. It is clear from Table 2.13 that except for a few, all other measures have reliability well above .50 for both the groups. The reason for reliability index being low for some of the measures is that these scales were composed of just 2 items.

Table 2.12

Descriptive Statistics, Scale Characteristics, and Coefficient Alpha for All Predictors (N = 300)

Predictors	No. of Items	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	α
OI	5	24.64	5.38	.72
WC	16	73.66	12.04	.76
IW	4	19.83	3.31	.43
MW	5	24.31	5.60	.66
FW	2	8.80	2.65	.43
VW	2	8.43	2.82	.43
FI	4	22.41	3.52	.57
FC	16	82.02	13.77	.83
IF	4	20.85	4.04	.69
MF	4	18.87	4.24	.57
FF	4	19.37	4.08	.60
AF	2	10.61	2.62	.54

Note. Abbreviations: OI = Organizational Involvement; WC = Work Climate; IW = Influence in Work; MW = Meaningfulness in Work; FW = Feedback in Work; VW = Variety in Work; FI = Family Involvement; FC = Family Climate; IF = Influence in Family; MF = Meaningfulness in Family work; FF = Feedback in Family; AF = Autonomy in Family.

Table 2.13

Descriptive Statistics, Scale Characteristics, and Coefficients Alpha for all Predictors (Higher and Lower Group)

Predictors	No. of Items	Higher Group (n = 150)			Lower Group (n = 150)		
		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	α	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	α
OI	5	24.21	5.81	.76	25.67	4.87	.63
WC	16	71.15	11.98	.78	76.17	11.61	.72
IW	4	19.69	3.26	.50	19.98	3.36	.37
MW	5	24.25	5.91	.65	24.38	5.29	.66
FW	2	8.90	2.53	.37	8.71	2.76	.48
VW	2	9.29	2.65	.39	7.57	2.74	.40
FI	4	22.31	3.39	.58	22.50	3.66	.56
FC	16	80.71	14.45	.85	83.33	12.98	.81
IF	4	20.42	4.02	.68	21.27	4.04	.68
MF	4	18.61	4.31	.62	19.13	4.18	.51
FF	4	18.93	4.12	.60	19.81	4.01	.59
AF	2	10.51	2.52	.60	10.71	2.71	.54

Note. See Table 2.12, for abbreviations.

Table 2.14 outlines intercorrelations among the predictors for the combined data and Table 2.15 provides similar information for the two groups separately. It is evident from these tables that almost all the intercorrelations are in the weak-to-moderate range. Hence, it suggests independence and nonoverlapping variances among the scales.

Table 2.14

Intercorrelations Among All the Predictors (N = 300)

Predictors

	OI	WC	IW	MW	FW	VW	FI	FC	IF	MF	FF	AF
OI	X											
WC	.47 ^b	X										
IW	.34 ^b	.45 ^b	X									
MW	.24 ^b	.43 ^b	.37 ^b	X								
FW	.07	.11 ^a	.03	.18 ^b	X							
VW	<u>.01</u>	<u>.08</u>	.03	.05	.08	X						
FI	.10	.15 ^b	<u>.01</u>	.09	.13 ^a	<u>.03</u>	X					
FC	.25 ^b	.29 ^b	.03	.15 ^b	.14 ^a	.03	.43 ^b	X				
IF	.21 ^b	.31 ^b	.20 ^b	.22 ^b	.09	<u>.20</u> ^b	.42 ^b	.46 ^b	X			
MF	.11 ^a	.10	.08	.03	.09	.04	.17 ^b	.23 ^b	.31 ^b	X		
FF	.21 ^b	.27 ^b	.19 ^b	.19 ^b	.08	<u>.01</u>	.28 ^b	.44 ^b	.50 ^b	.30 ^b	X	
AF	.18 ^b	.14 ^a	.07	.06	.08	.01	.24 ^b	.19 ^b	.38 ^b	.14 ^a	.29 ^b	X

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Negative values are underlined; see Table 2.12, for abbreviations.

Table 2.15

Intercorrelations Among All the Predictors for the Two Groups (Higher and Lower)

Predictors

	OI	WC	IW	MW	FW	VW	FI	FC	IF	MF	FF	AF
OI	X	.47 ^b	.34 ^b	.19 ^a	.01	.11	.12	.35 ^b	.24 ^b	.10	.22 ^b	.20 ^a
WC	.46 ^b	X	.50 ^b	.50 ^b	.18 ^b	.05	.21 ^b	.24 ^b	.28 ^b	.14	.28 ^b	.19 ^a
IW	.34 ^b	.41 ^b	X	.43 ^b	.09	.15	.07	.05	.19 ^a	.06	.15	.08
MW	.17 ^a	.35 ^b	.30 ^b	X	.21 ^b	.30 ^b	.17 ^a	.11	.15	.08	.19 ^a	.21 ^b
FW	.00	.07	.03	.16 ^a	X	.15	.08	.10	.02	.14	.01	.05
VW	.04	.08	.08	.02	.01	X	.00	.08	.11	.12	.11	.04
FI	.07	.08	.09	.00	.17 ^a	.04	X	.51 ^b	.42 ^b	.22 ^b	.21 ^b	.21 ^b
FC	.10	.32 ^b	.01	.15	.19 ^a	.02	.55 ^b	X	.69 ^b	.28 ^b	.40 ^b	.56 ^a
IF	.16 ^a	.30 ^b	.21 ^b	.31 ^b	.16 ^a	.08	.42 ^b	.61 ^b	X	.42 ^b	.45 ^b	.40 ^b
MF	.12	.12	.20 ^a	.16 ^a	.17 ^a	.10	.10	.20 ^a	.35 ^b	X	.31 ^b	.18 ^a
FF	.18 ^a	.23 ^b	.23 ^b	.19 ^b	.14	.05	.34 ^b	.47 ^b	.53 ^b	.41 ^b	X	.31 ^b
AF	.14	.27 ^b	.06	.09	.12	.02	.27 ^b	.41 ^b	.36 ^b	.15 ^a	.26 ^b	X

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; The matrix above the diagonal indicates intercorrelations among predictors for higher group ($n = 150$); the matrix below the diagonal indicates the same for lower group ($n = 150$); Negative values are underlined; see Table 2.12, for abbreviations.

Table 2.16 provides statistics regarding moderators used in the study. It is evident from the table that all the measures show reliabilities well over .50. Further, the correlations obtained are in the weak-to-moderate range, thus providing evidence for the independence of scales. Similar information has been given for both the samples, separately, in Table 2.17.

Table 2.16

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of the Moderator Variables (N = 300)

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Career Orientation (CO)	.63			
2. Self Image (SI)	.08	.59		
3. Chance (CH)	.21 ^b	<u>.02</u>	.73	
4. Powerful Others (PO)	.21 ^b	<u>.07</u>	.40 ^b	.63
<u>M</u>	18.59	18.97	25.59	25.84
<u>SD</u>	4.92	4.97	8.12	6.19
No. of Items	4	4	8	6

Note. ^bp < .01; Diagonal enteries indicate reliability coefficients; Underlined enteries show negative values.

Table 2.17

Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Intercorrelations of the Moderator Variables for the Two Groups (n=n=300)

Variables	1	2	3	4	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	α
1. CO	X	.04	.17 ^a	.21 ^b	18.86	4.69	.70
2. SI	.14	X	<u>.07</u>	<u>.08</u>	18.19	5.24	.51
3. CH	.25 ^b	.02	X	.42 ^b	26.45	7.94	.73
4. PO	.21 ^b	<u>.03</u>	.39 ^b	X	25.51	6.09	.63
<u>M</u>	18.33	19.75	25.33	26.17			
<u>SD</u>	5.13	4.58	8.28	6.28			
α	.54	.63	.74	.64			

Note. ^ap < .05; ^bp < .01; The matrix above the diagonal indicates the intercorrelations for the higher group; matrix below the diagonal indicates the intercorrelations for the lower group. Underlined enteries show negative values; see Table 2.16, for abbreviations.

Intercorrelations of moderator variables with predictor and criterion variables have been provided in Table 2.18 for the combined data ($N=300$) and the same information for higher and lower groups are provided in Tables 2.19 and 2.20. These tables show that moderators are weakly to moderately correlated with the predictor and criterion variables, thus meeting the requirements of a variable to act as moderator.

Table 2.18

Zero-Order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables for the combined data ($N = 300$)

	Moderators			
	CO	SI	CH	PO
<hr/>				
Predictors				
OI	.01	.31 ^b	.06	.01
WC	.05	.27 ^b	.02	<u>.03</u>
IW	.22 ^b	.14 ^a	.10	.08
MW	.03	.08	.12 ^a	<u>.02</u>
FW	<u>.09</u>	.08	<u>.05</u>	<u>.10</u>
VW	.01	<u>.08</u>	.04	.04
FI	<u>.08</u>	.21 ^b	.12 ^a	<u>.03</u>
FC	.11 ^a	.32 ^b	<u>.01</u>	.19 ^b
IF	.04	.28 ^b	.08	<u>.08</u>
MF	<u>.05</u>	.12 ^a	<u>.01</u>	.02
FF	.18 ^b	.23 ^b	.15 ^b	<u>.03</u>
AF	<u>.04</u>	.16 ^b	.04	.15 ^b
Criteria				
FS	<u>.03</u>	.38 ^b	.07	<u>.03</u>
WS	.05	.30 ^b	.02	<u>.05</u>
IRS	.06	.00	.04	<u>.08</u>
LS	.01	.33	.06	.19 ^b

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; Abbreviations: FS = Family satisfaction; WS = Work satisfaction; IRS = Interrole satisfaction; LS = Life satisfaction; see Tables 2.12 and 2.16, for other abbreviations.

Table 2.19

Zero-Order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables for the Higher Group ($n = 150$)

	Moderators			
	CO	SI	CH	PO
<hr/>				
Predictors				
OI	.03	.36 ^b	<u>.04</u>	<u>.10</u>
WC	.10	.35 ^b	<u>.03</u>	<u>.07</u>
IW	.20 ^a	.21 ^b	.03	.04
MW	.21 ^b	.06	.13	<u>.01</u>
FW	<u>.10</u>	.01	<u>.04</u>	.05
VW	<u>.08</u>	<u>.01</u>	.00	.12
FI	<u>.01</u>	.22 ^b	<u>.09</u>	.04
FC	<u>.06</u>	.36 ^b	<u>.03</u>	<u>.12</u>
IF	.06	.32 ^b	<u>.04</u>	<u>.04</u>
MF	<u>.13</u>	.02	<u>.07</u>	.18
FF	.36 ^b	.17	.07	.01
AF	<u>.04</u>	.18 ^a	<u>.09</u>	.16 ^a
Criteria				
FS	<u>.03</u>	.33 ^b	<u>.03</u>	<u>.01</u>
WS	.07	.40 ^b	<u>.07</u>	<u>.02</u>
IRS	<u>.02</u>	<u>.02</u>	.03	.05
LS	<u>.07</u>	.38 ^b	<u>.05</u>	<u>.22</u> ^b

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; see Tables 2.12, 2.16 and 2.18, for other abbreviations.

Table 2.20

Zero-Order Correlations of Moderators with Predictors and Criterion Variables
(Lower Group, $n = 150$)

	Moderators			
	CO	SI	CH	PO
OI	.00	.21 ^b	.15	.14
WC	.02	.11	.05	.04
IW	.23 ^b	.07	.16 ^a	.12
MW	.07	.10	.10	.02
FW	.09	.16 ^a	.06	.14
VW	.01	.08	.05	.03
FI	.12	.19 ^a	.14	.10
FC	.15	.24 ^b	.01	.25
IF	.03	.22 ^b	.19 ^a	.11
MF	.13	.23 ^b	.17 ^a	.01
FF	.04	.28 ^b	.21 ^b	.06
AF	.03	.12	.00	.13
Criteria				
FS	.01	.40 ^b	.18 ^a	.04
WS	.04	.19	.10	.07
IRS	.02	.01	.04	.21
LS	.05	.24 ^b	.15	.15

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; see Tables 2.12, 2.16 and 2.18, for abbreviations.

Finally, Tables 2.21 through 2.23 provide correlations between predictors and criterion variables for combined data, higher group and lower group, respectively. These relationships are presented because the subsequent statistical analysis is based on them. It is evident from these tables that generally the relationships are above the tolerance level, suggesting the significance of relationships and providing a reason to carry out further analyses on these data.

Table 2.21

Zero-Order Correlations of Between Predictors and Criterion Variables for combined data (N = 300)

Predictors	Criteria	FS	WS	IRS	LS
OI		.28 ^b	.46 ^b	.10	.34 ^b
WC		.24 ^b	.42 ^b	.10	.39 ^b
IW		.08	.29 ^b	<u>.03</u>	.18 ^b
MW		<u>.03</u>	.05	.06	<u>.01</u>
FW		.01	.08	.05	.11 ^a
VW		<u>.02</u>	<u>.03</u>	.00	<u>.09</u>
FI		.50 ^b	.20 ^b	.21 ^b	.22 ^b
FC		.64 ^b	.37 ^b	.26 ^b	.38 ^b
IF		.54 ^b	.38 ^b	.13 ^b	.41 ^b
MF		.23 ^b	.16 ^b	.01	.16 ^b
FF		.47 ^b	.30 ^b	.11 ^a	.31 ^b
AF		.34 ^b	.21 ^b	.15 ^a	.24 ^b

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; see Tables 2.12 and 2.18, for abbreviations.

Table 2.22

Zero-Order Correlations Between Predictors and Criterion Variables for the Higher Group (n=150)

Predictors	Criteria	FS	WS	IRS	LS
OI		.29 ^b	.60 ^b	.20 ^a	.41 ^b
WC		.23 ^b	.56 ^b	.12	.49 ^b
IW		.00	.41 ^b	.03	.21 ^b
MW		.12	.27 ^b	.18 ^a	.37 ^b
FW		.01	.08	<u>.01</u>	.21 ^b
VW		.02	<u>.04</u>	<u>.09</u>	.05
FI		.55 ^b	.14	.13	.29 ^b
FC		.70 ^b	.33 ^b	.17 ^a	.37 ^b
IF		.54 ^b	.35 ^b	.08	.36 ^b
MF		.26 ^b	.25 ^b	.14	.08
FF		.38 ^b	.29 ^b	.14	.19 ^a
AF		.45 ^b	.24 ^b	.19 ^a	.28 ^b

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; see Tables 2.12 and 2.18, for abbreviations.

Table 2.23

Zero-Order Correlations Between Predictors and Criterion Variables for the Lower Group(n=150)

Predictors	Criteria	FS	WS	IRS	LS
OI		.24 ^b	.32 ^b	<u>.02</u>	.25 ^b
WC		.21 ^b	.30 ^b	.09	.26 ^b
IW		.16 ^a	.18 ^a	<u>.09</u>	.15
MW		.16 ^a	.19 ^a	.10	.15
FW		.03	.09	.11	.02
VW		.04	<u>.01</u>	.11	<u>.06</u>
FI		.46 ^b	.26 ^b	.30 ^b	.15
FC		.56 ^b	.41 ^b	.37 ^b	.37 ^b
IF		.52 ^b	.42 ^b	.19 ^a	.45 ^b
MF		.22 ^b	.06	<u>.04</u>	.23 ^b
FF		.57 ^b	.31 ^b	.07	.41 ^b
AF		.20 ^a	.19 ^a	.09	.19 ^a

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Underlined entries show negative values; Abbreviations; see Tables 2.12 and 2.18, for abbreviations.

THE STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The Preliminary Analysis

Before carrying out the main analysis, some preliminary analyses were conducted which included factorization of scales, coefficients alpha, and descriptive statistics. These were computed to examine the psychometric properties of the measures employed in the study.

Since the occupational status was considered a categorical variable in the study, the sample was chosen in such a way that it constructed two groups: the higher professional group and the lower group. To observe the significance of

this variable in terms of criterion variables a one-way ANOVA was carried out (see Table 2.24). It is clear from Table 2.24 that the two groups differed significantly on at least two of the criterion variables. On the basis of this, the two samples have been treated separately in later analyses.

Table 2.24

Mean Scores and F-ratios on Measures of Satisfaction (Criterion Variables) as a Function of Occupational Status

Variables	Higher ($n = 150$)	Lower ($n = 150$)	$F(1,298)$
Work Satisfaction	22.31 (4.13)	23.45 (3.54)	6.50 ^b
Family Satisfaction	21.72 (4.49)	21.76 (4.76)	.006
Interrole Satisfaction	14.91 (3.98)	15.02 (3.61)	.067
Life Satisfaction	37.58 (7.27)	39.29 (7.09)	4.27 ^b

Note. $N = 300$; ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; Entries in parentheses are the SDs.

The Main Analysis

Two types of relationships were tested: (i) the direct relationships between predictors and criteria, for which stepwise regression analysis was used; and (ii) the interactive relationships, which were explored by using a series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis (Nie et al., 1975). Arnold (1982) and Stone and Hollenbeck (1984) have suggested that hierarchical multiple regression approach has several advantages over other techniques, such as ANOVA and median-split sample. One, it provides information regarding the form or pattern of relationship between the two variables. Two, it keeps the problem of differences in scores away (Wall & Payne, 1973).

While computing the hierarchical multiple regression, for each interaction pair, scores were converted to z scores and then a product term was obtained. For the hypothesis of interaction to be accepted, the β weight of that product term should be significant. The regression coefficients were tested through the application of F -ratio. Instead of determining the incremental contribution of each variable by assuming it was added last, the hierarchical method requires that the researcher specifies the order of inclusion. Variables were added in single steps, and the increment in the explained sum of squares at each step was taken as a component of variation attributable to the particular variable added on that step.

The significant interactions were then plotted in order to see the direction. Following Hunt, Osborn, and Larson (1975), lines with ± 1 standard deviation from the means were plotted. While plotting the interaction curves, all the mean scores were divided by the number of items in order to maintain consistency across all figures. However, in some of the cases, one of the cells was empty (had zero value). For these empty cells, the means were predicted by using a procedure given by Winer (1962, pp. 281-283). There were instances where more than one cell was empty, the plotting was dropped altogether because even predicting means would not have supplied us with meaningful results.

While plotting the data, predictors were grouped into qualitative categories (low and high for the present study). Thus, it may be possible that despite the β weights being significant, the curves of some of the interactions might not look significant. Here it should be noted that the interaction is not a "discontinuous qualitative variable that differentiates subgroups of individuals who are qualitatively different. Rather it is a continuous quantitative variable" (Zedeck, 1971, p. 305).

Thus, this should not cause undue worries.

Besides stepwise and hierarchical multiple regression, one more analytical technique was employed which is a stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Since the primary aim of the present work was to understand the work-family relationship across domains or secondary relationships, this analysis was used to assess the incremental contribution of each set of independent variables to the multiple R^2 prediction of the dependent variable (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In this technique, the sets of variables were entered in ordered steps. At each step, the contribution of one set of variables to multiple R^2 (or R^2 change), beyond that of variables entered in previous steps, was determined. Thus, in this way, one can easily obtain the amount of variance explained by one set of variables to one particular criterion variable. In essence, this is a procedure in which the researcher obtains the incremental variances at every step in a given order in which variable sets are entered. A similar procedure has been used in previous research (see e.g., Rice et al., 1979) in assessing the work-nonwork relationship.

All the statistical analyses were performed following the SPSSX manual.

Chapter 3

WORK AND FAMILY SATISFACTION

Contents

An Overview	73
Work.	74
Content Dimensions	74
Conceptualizations.	75
Results and Discussion	77
Context Dimensions	80
Conceptualizations.	81
Results and Discussion.	86
Family.	89
Content Dimensions	89
Conceptualizations.	90
Results and Discussion	92
Context Dimensions	95
Conceptualizations.	95
Results and Discussion.	100
Work-Family Nexus	104
Direct Relationships	105
Conceptualizations.	105
Results and Discussion	110
Interactive Relationships	115
Conceptualizations.	115
Results and Discussion.	117

An Overview

Family and employing organization are considered to be the two most central institutions that impinge upon the life of an individual. Traditionally, family and marriage researchers have focused on only one of these aspects; that is, studying family leaving the other one to be investigated by people in other disciplines (organizational and industrial psychologists, for example).

During the past few decades, however, the importance of studying these domains together by scholars in organizational psychology and management has been identified. This research has taken several forms in which much emphasis now-a-days is on structural and psychological characteristics of work, quality of life, etc.

It has been maintained that work-family cross effects are important to be explored alongwith the within domain effects. The interdependence of work and family has shown different patterns for men and women. Since work-family responsibilities are simultaneous for women unlike men for whom it is sequential, studying work-family relationships for women seems more appropriate.

The lead for the present study was taken from the existing literature on the work-family relationship in India and abroad. Different analytical strategies have been adopted to test the effects of work and family characteristics on satisfaction within and outside the domains.

The present chapter gives an account of the results obtained from such statistical analyses. It has been divided into four major sections. The first section deals exclusively with the relationships of work variables to work satisfaction. The second section presents an elaboration of the relationships of

family satisfaction with family aspects.

The third major section comprises information regarding the cross-domain relationship--that is, work characteristics as related to family satisfaction and family characteristics as related to work satisfaction.

The last section analyzes the results obtained from the interactions of work-family variables in predicting work and family satisfaction.

These major sections, however, are subdivided into various parts: the conceptualizations, the background, the hypotheses, and the results and discussion for both context and content dimensions of work and family.

WORK

The concept of work, though quite pervasive in its sense, is used here to refer to work outside house on the paid employment in a formal organization. Work may be predicted by at least two types of factors. The first relates to those aspects which characterize a job or task itself. The second type relates to the environment in which an individual works. The two are referred to as "content" and "context" dimensions, respectively.

Content Dimensions

Five intrinsic characteristics of the job drawn mainly from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) theorization were taken as the content variables in the present study. A brief description of these dimensions and hypotheses drawn from their conceptualizations is presented below.

Conceptualizations

The Background

The need to study job characteristics was felt by researchers owing to several reasons. First, the current research area of work alienation gave special emphasis on the relationship of job characteristics with satisfaction and performance. Secondly, the study of work motivation is thought to be related strongly to the characteristics of work itself. As Scott (1966) mentions, the amount and variety of stimulation serves to motivate the worker and enable him/her to maintain a high level of performance. The basic idea is that nonrepetitive and nonroutine jobs are likely to serve as positive motivators of behavior.

Hackman and Oldham (1975) provided a theoretical framework to understand work motivation. They incorporated in their deliberation the works of Hackman and Lawler (1971), Trist (1971), and Turner and Lawrence (1965). They gave five core dimensions which characterize any job, which are widely known and tested (Arnold & House, 1980; Daily, 1980; Evans, Kiggundu, & House, 1979; Robert & Glick, 1981; Rousseau, 1978). These are:

Task variety--the degree to which a job requires workers to perform a wide range of operations on the degree to which they must use a variety of equipments and procedures in their work.

Task Identity--the extent to which employees do an entire piece of work (from beginning to end) and can clearly identify the results of their efforts.

Task Significance--the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people.

Autonomy--the degree to which the job provides freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work.

Feedback--the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct (built-in) and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her performance.

Hackman and Lawler (1971) state:

... individuals will be able to obtain meaningful personal satisfaction when they perform well on jobs which they experience as high on variety, autonomy, identity and feedback (p. 267).

Besides these five core dimensions, one more component was added by the authors which was named "dealing with others."

Studies suggest that perception of these characteristics in substantial amount results in motivation and satisfaction (James & Jones, 1980; Katerberg, Hom, & Hulin, 1979; Shukla, Sarna, & Nigam, 1989; Taylor, 1981). According to Hackman and Oldham (1975), if workers perceive these aspects in high degree, they are benefitted by "enriched opportunities for personal learning and growth of work, and they tend to report these opportunities personally satisfying" (p. 89). Other evidence from enriched job being a source of satisfaction comes from the studies of Lawler, Hackman, and Kaufman (1973) and Paul, Robertson, and Herzberg (1969).

Hypotheses

The findings mentioned above suggest that the greater the perception of job characteristics, the higher is the level of motivation and satisfaction. It is also expected that the relationship of job characteristics and satisfaction may be moderated by factors like one's self image, career orientation, external locus of control, or by one's level of occupation. Regarding these moderators, it may be maintained that those having more positive self image, more career

orientation, and having low external locus of control would perceive the linkage more often and, therefore, would be more satisfied. This is because women who are high self image possessors would like to maintain their self image by being a good worker and, therefore, the perception of job characteristics would be more, which would lead to satisfaction. However, career orientation is such a variable that it might lead to greater perception of job characteristics, but may lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The reason is that once the thirst for further advancement is quenched, the individual will be satisfied, which however is unlikely if a person is highly career oriented. Regarding locus of control, since less externals are supposed to act as internals, it is expected that the work characteristics-satisfaction relationship will be more. Besides, those at higher jobs are more likely to be motivated by content dimensions (Centers & Bugental, 1966; Maslow, 1954). Thus, in the light of above arguments, the following hypotheses are developed:

- H1: There exists a positive relationship between job characteristics and work satisfaction.
- H2: Content dimensions are stronger predictors for higher group women than those for lower group.
- H3: Job characteristics-satisfaction relationship is more apparent for those having high career orientation, high self image, and low external locus of control.

Results and Discussion

The above mentioned hypotheses were tested through stepwise and hierarchical multiple regression analyses. The stepwise regression analysis produced the direct linkages between predictors and criteria and the hierarchical regression analysis enabled to investigate the person-environment interactions in

redicting work satisfaction.

The responses obtained on JDS items were subjected to a factor analysis (see Chapter 2 for details) which constrained to three meaningful and interpretable factors instead of six as described by the authors of the scale.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis revealed that the only work variable which predicted work satisfaction significantly in both the groups was the meaningfulness of work. That is, work which had more autonomy, significance, and identity produced more satisfaction. It explained 8% of the variance in higher group and 4% in the lower group (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Content Variables (Predictors) and Work Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group ($n = 150$)			Lower Group ($n = 150$)		
	FW	MW	VW	FW	MW	VW
R^2	*	.27	*	*	.19	*
R^2 Change	*	.08	*	*	.04	*
β	*	.27 ^b	*	*	.19 ^a	*
Order	*	1	*	*	1	*

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: FW = Feedback in Work; MW = Meaningfulness in Work; VW = Variety in Work.

Besides direct linkages, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to observe the interactive relationships which disclosed that the only moderator that affected the relationship of feedback with work satisfaction for the higher group women was career orientation, $\beta = -.17$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.24$; $p < .05$ (see Figure 3.1). Work satisfaction was found to be the lowest in the case of low career oriented women perceiving low feedback. However, no

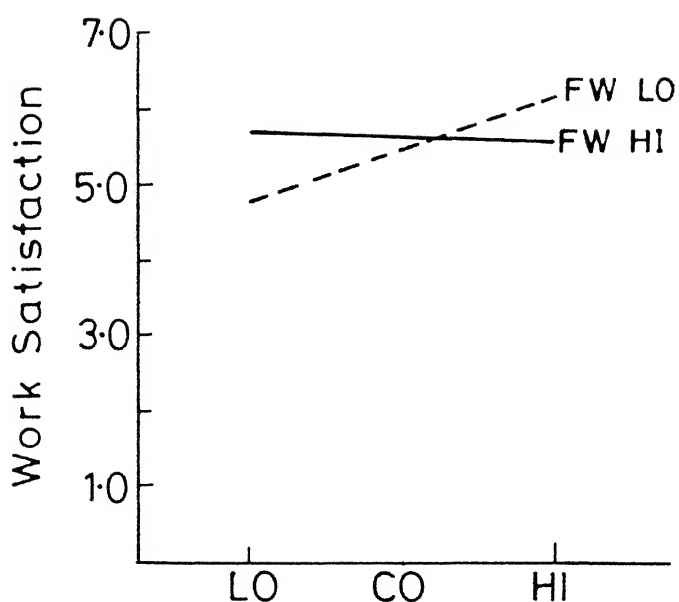


Figure 3.1. Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of feedback in work (predictor) and career orientation (moderator). Abbreviations: CO=Career Orientation; FW=Feedback in Work; LO=Low; HI=High.

difference in the level of satisfaction was reported between the high and the low career oriented women if feedback was perceived to be high. Thus, maximum satisfaction was reported by high career oriented women even when they perceived low feedback.

Variety did not emerge as a predictor of satisfaction in neither of the groups. The possible reason could be that women in top jobs experience a complex environment. Once they get accustomed to that kind of situation, it does not bring any additional satisfaction for them. But, women at lower jobs do not want variety and prefer routinized and simplified job. Thus, they did not perceive variety in their jobs and hence, variety did not predict satisfaction.

Another possible reason could be that women did not perceive variety in sufficient amount so as to obtain satisfaction from it. Probably the sample consisting of all employees from public sector must be a reason for it. Taking both public and private organizations and comparing the two would have provided better understanding.

Self image and locus of control did not emerge as moderators. Sims and Szilagyi (1976) reported similar results for locus of control as a moderator. Probably other self variables such as work values and perception of job characteristics would have acted as more salient moderators in this regard.

Context Dimensions

The contextual or extrinsic characteristics which are included in the present study are climate, influence on others as perceived by the individual, and involvement with organization. A conceptualization of these dimensions including background information, hypotheses, and results alongwith a discussion is given below.

Conceptualizations

Climate

The Background. An individual is greatly influenced by his/her immediate environment or setting in which he/she operates. In an organization, the individual interacts quite frequently with the surroundings--the co-workers, the structure and policy of the organization, the reward system, and so forth. All these aspects can be clubbed under one head, that is, the perceived climate of the organization. Climate has been formally defined as the characteristic behavioral process in a social system at one particular point in time. These processes reflect the members' values, attitudes, and beliefs and have become part of the construct (Payne & Pugh, 1976). There could be at least two types of climate. One is objective climate which is a direct assessment of organizational properties, and the other is subjective which is an indirect assessment of organizational properties through the perception of the people. As Payne (1971) puts,

Climate is a molar concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviors and feelings of the members of a social system which can be operationally measured through the perceptions of system members or observational and other objective means (p. 156).

Different conceptualizations have employed different dimensions of climate. For example, Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) describe climate composed of autonomy, structure imposed on the position, reward orientation, consideration, warmth and support. Other factors are rule orientation (Kahn et al., 1964) and individual responsibility (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Since climate methodology provides a means of identifying variations in the perception and responses of people to their work environment, it is useful

for assessing the impact of employee level variables in the organization.

Studies have shown a positive relationship between climate and satisfaction. Friedlander and Margulies (1969) studied three dimensions of satisfaction and eight aspects of climate and concluded that, out of eight, six aspects of climate were significantly related to three satisfaction indexes.

Additionally, Schneider and Hall (1973) found moderate relationships of climate scales with satisfaction and self image scales with a positive directionality. Thus, the studies which have employed individual as the unit of analysis showed moderate relationships between climate and satisfaction. This provides reason to ponder that probably characteristics of the environment in interaction with self variables may predict satisfaction.

Hypotheses. On the basis of above reasoning, it is assumed that whereas climate may predict satisfaction directly, it might also be moderated by certain personal variables. Further, since the flow of organizational climate is downward (i.e., from upper to lower levels), it is expected that the two groups of women will differ significantly in terms of their climate perception. Hence, the following hypotheses are advanced for empirical varifications:

- H4: There exists a positive relationship between climate and satisfaction.
- H5: Women at higher level perceive climate as more favorable and thus are more satisfied than women at lower level.
- H6: Self image, career orientation, and locus of control moderate the relationship of climate with satisfaction.

Influence

The Background. Influence is defined as a change in one's beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, or emotions brought about by some other person(s) (Raven & Rubin, 1983). It is the mode by which power is exercised. Several studies

have shown the importance of power strategies in getting one's way (e.g., Ansari, 1990; Falbo, 1977; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977).

The amount of perceived influence on the environment may be considered more important variable in a work situation than the amount of actual influence a person has on others or on the environment. The value of acquiring influence in organizations has also been well-documented. Many have equated it with the ability to get things done (Kanter, 1979; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), and it is often associated with career success and upward mobility.

Hypotheses. The literature existing in this area suggests that people like to feel that they can control or influence events or persons in their environment. Hence, it may be inferred that this feeling of being influential is associated with one's experience of positive outcomes, such as satisfaction and involvement in work. Also the self related aspects are expected to moderate this relationship. It may be reasoned that the higher the self image of the person, the greater will be the perception of being influential. But the converse will be true in the case of locus of control; that is, the lower the person is on external locus of control, the greater will be the perception of control over the environment. Regarding career orientation, it may be expected that it may act as an enhancer in the influence-satisfaction relationship. Thus, high self image, career orientation, and low external locus of control would predict greater satisfaction in interaction with influence. Further, influence might have different values for those working at higher level jobs and for those at lower level. And since career success and upward mobility are found to be related to job satisfaction, it is expected that occupational status might moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and influence. Thus, in view of this, the following hypotheses are stated:

- H7: There exists a positive relationship between influence and satisfaction.
- H8: Women at higher level jobs feel more satisfied when they perceive themselves influential than those at lower jobs.
- H9: Self image, career orientation, and locus of control moderate the relationship of influence with satisfaction.

Involvement

The Background. Commitment to organization has been defined in diverse ways. The works of Buchanan (1974), Etzioni (1975), Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), and Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) represent most but not all of that diversity. However, the common element across all the definitions is that employee commitment is a sense of attachment to a work organization. Some authors have emphasized commitment through actions (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), whereas others have viewed it as an affective, emotional state, containing sense of loyalty, and psychological attachment (Buchanan, 1974; Etzioni, 1975; Hall et al., 1970; Porter et al., 1974; Romzek & Hendricks, 1982). The latter approach has been named "organizational involvement" (Romzek, 1989).

It has been demonstrated that commitment to one's workplace is a positive aspect for both individual and organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Simon, 1976). The studies conducted by Porter et al. (1974), Rabinowitz and Hall (1977), and Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979) suggest the relationship between involvement and satisfaction. Important distinctions between the two concepts have also been pointed out.

The rationale for the positive relationship between involvement and satisfaction is that, being attached to or involved in an organization, the

individual shares almost common values and beliefs with the organization. This results into positive consequences for organization as well, and gets spilled over to his/her personal lives. However, some counter evidence are also available (Dawns, 1967; Korman & Korman, 1980; Randall, 1987).

Hypotheses. Research findings mentioned above suggest that involvement with workplace leads to feelings of satisfaction. But this relationship might vary according to certain self related aspects. Women having high self image of a successful dual worker would perceive psychological attachment to their workplace in order to maintain their self image. But, high career orientation of women might not moderate this predictor-criterion relationship, since career oriented people can be hardly thought of showing emotional attachment to their workplace. However, a moderate amount of career orientation might be needed in order for involvement-satisfaction relationship to be perceived. Further, it is difficult to speculate what trend external locus of control will show, but it can be expected that less externality would predict greater perception of predictor-criterion association. Below are stated some conjectures for empirical verifications:

H10: There is a positive relationship between involvement with organization and work satisfaction.

H11: The two groups of women have differential patterns of relationship between involvement and satisfaction.

H12: Career orientation, self image, and locus of control moderate the above mentioned relationship.

Results and Discussion

Direct relationships of the context variables with work satisfaction were tested using the stepwise multiple regression analysis. The results obtained are displayed in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Context Variables (Predictors) and Work Satisfaction (Criterion Variable)

Predictors	Higher Group ($n = 150$)			Lower Group ($n = 150$)		
	OI	IW	WC	OI	IW	WC
Criterion						
R^2	.60	*	.68	.32	*	.36
R^2 Change	.36	*	.10	.10	*	.03
β	.60 ^b	*	.35 ^b	.32 ^b	*	.19 ^a
Order	1	*	2	1	*	2

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: OI = Organizational Involvement; IW = Influence in Work; WC = Work Climate.

Organizational involvement emerged as a very strong predictor of work satisfaction for both the groups of women. However, the relationship was stronger for the higher group (36% of the variance) than for the lower group (10% of the variance). Climate emerged as the second order predictor for both the groups. But once again there was a difference in the added amount of variance. For the higher group it was 10% and for the lower group it was only 3%.

Influence did not contribute significantly to satisfaction. The possible reason could be that it might interact with personal variables in predicting satisfaction. This possibility was examined by using a hierarchical multiple

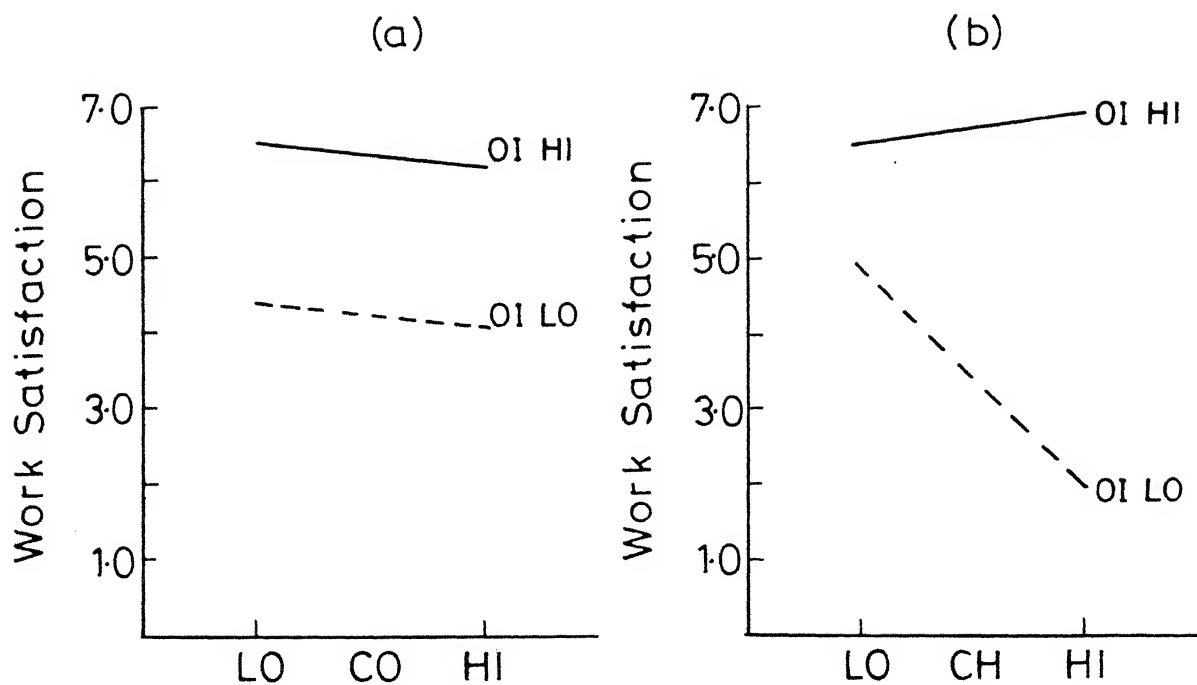


Figure 32. Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of organizational involvement (Predictor) and career orientation and chance (Moderators). Abbreviations: OI=Organizational Involvement; see Figure 3.1 for other abbreviations.

regression analysis. The analysis showed two significant interactions--both for the higher group of women (Figure 3.2).

The first interaction (Figure 3.2a) reveals that involvement predicted satisfaction only for those who were low in career orientation than for those who were high in career orientation. However, when involvement was low, then low career orientation led to more satisfaction, $\beta = .14$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1,296) = 4.88$; $p < .05$. The results are self explanatory in the sense that high career oriented women would look forward to brighter opportunities of self development. Involvement with a particular organization would hamper their self development and, therefore, would result in dissatisfaction.

In the other instance (Figure 3.2b), it is clear that involvement-satisfaction relationship is moderated by chance externality. When involvement was low, work satisfaction was greater for those having low chance orientation, $\beta = .17$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 6.85$; $p < .01$. However, when involvement was high, chance did not have much effect. The possible reason for these results could be that less externals are more likely to behave as internals who are supposed to perceive involvement-satisfaction linkage more directly. Thus, having low chance orientation and low involvement, the individual reports satisfaction.

Taken together (both the samples of women), the findings can be explained in terms of gender role model, as far as influence is concerned. Women managers, generally, are deprived of informal relationships with other managers and co-workers who are predominantly males (Hennig & Jardin, 1977). Also, because their cognitive structure is such that they do not perceive power even if they have that. Thus, it may be possible that women workers do not perceive influence and personal control as a determinant of satisfaction.

To conclude, one fact which is noticeable in the data is that either the content variables have not emerged or they are very weak predictors of work

satisfaction. It was expected that being at higher level, these women should have shown this relationship much strongly. In comparison to content, context variables were better predictors of work satisfaction. Two reasons could be cited for such findings. One, women as workers are more concerned about the job conditions, the co-workers, the climate, their emotional response to their workplace than about the job itself. Two, content aspects were not present in their jobs in sufficient amount. A better understanding of the second view can be developed by comparing women workers of public and private organizations, and voluntary and nonvoluntary organizations.

Family

The present study conceptualizes family as an organization similar to that of work organization having almost similar psychological dimensions. It is assumed that family also contains at least two types of characteristics: content and context. Content variables are those which directly relate to the role borne by an individual in the family, whereas context variables particularly relate to family as a whole.

Content Dimensions

An attempt has been made under this head to look for similar dimensions as has been seen in employing organizations. Therefore, exactly the same aspects of family are employed which were used earlier in the context of work. A brief description about these dimensions in the family domain follows.

Conceptualizations

The Background

Organizational research is flooded with studies concerning the behavior of individuals in organizations. Very recently has the emphasis been shifted to nonwork factors which may also influence individual's reactions to nonwork satisfaction and to his or her job. However, the difficulty to characterize family experiences objectively resulted in family not receiving the same treatment as the paid work. Two chief reasons are responsible for this. One, there are but a few systematic studies which have examined the family domain employing content dimensions examined (McKechnie, 1974; Rousseau, 1978), whereas descriptions of work experiences are rich and varied. Two, very few indexes describing nonwork experiences are known. Ott (1984) describes several characteristics of family work which may be listed as autonomy, competence, planning and organization, and responsibility.

A study by Rousseau (1978) attempted to understand family experiences through a measure parallel to that of Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). Following this, the present study also employed a measure, which was similar to JDS, in the Indian context. The dimensions which were included in the scale are as follows:

Task Variety--the degree to which one's family work requires one to perform a wide range of operations or the frequency with which variety in the use of different procedures are involved.

Task Identity--the extent to which household work is identifiable or it provides complete piece of work.

Task Significance--the degree to which work in family has a substantial impact on the lives of the other members of family.

Autonomy--the degree to which work in family provides freedom and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used.

Feedback--the degree to which carrying out the household work required in the family provides the individual with direct information about the effectiveness of performance and the degree to which the same is provided by one's family members.

Besides, one more aspect, "dealing with others," was incorporated. The assumption was that the greater the perception of these characteristics in family work, the higher is the motivation and satisfaction with family.

The data obtained on these dimensions were subjected to a factor analysis which generated three meaningful factors instead of six as described by authors of the scale (see Chapter 2 for details).

Hypotheses

Following are the hypotheses advanced in relation to family content aspects and satisfaction:

- H1: There exists a positive relationship between content dimensions of family and family satisfaction.
- H2: Occupational status affects the predictor-criterion relationship in a positive direction.
- H3: Self image and locus of control moderate the predictor-criterion relationship.

It is to be noted here that career orientation as a moderator is not employed because this aspect relates to one's job or work outside home.

Results and Discussion

The stepwise multiple regression was used to obtain direct relationships between the predictors and the criterion variable. Results are contained in Table 3.3. It was found that feedback was the only factor that emerged as a significant predictor of family satisfaction for the lower group of women. It explained 32% of the variance in family satisfaction. The effect of occupational status on family satisfaction is clear in the sense that autonomy instead of feedback emerged as the first predictor in the higher group, explaining almost 20% of the variance. Feedback here, however, did emerge but at the second place--adding about 6% of the variance. Thus, it seems that women at top level jobs, being financially independent, having more egalitarian views, and attitudes value autonomy more to derive family satisfaction. The women of the other group, being less egalitarian, having less modern values and egalitarian atmosphere at home are dependent more upon the feedback from family members and the work itself in order to experience family satisfaction.

Meaningfulness did not emerge as a significant predictor of family satisfaction. Possibly, it might interact with self related variables. Hence, to examine these moderating effects, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was applied. Results showed that powerful others orientation of locus of control was the only variable that moderated the relationship between autonomy and family satisfaction for the lower group.

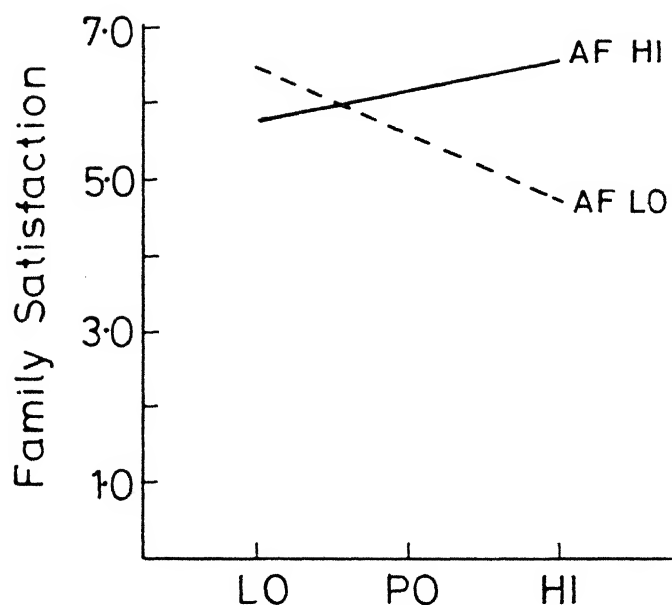


Figure 3.3 Mean family satisfaction scores as a function of autonomy in family (predictor) and powerful others locus of control (Moderator). Abbreviations: PO=Powerful Others; AF=Autonomy in Family; LO=Low; HI=High.

Meaningfulness did not emerge as a predictor for either sample. It could be that whether women find their work at home meaningful or not, they are bound to perform it. Thus, it is more like a responsibility than a source of satisfaction for them, so far as household chores are concerned.

Self image also did not appear as a moderator for either group. The reason could be that since work and family are but only two segments of one's overall satisfaction, self image might relate to other broader concepts such as interrole and life satisfaction. The other reason could be that the apparent direct relationships are strong enough not to have any moderating effect of other variables.

Thus, overall results suggest that occupational status does affect the pattern of relationships to some extent. The hypothesis regarding direct relationships has received stonger support than the moderating hypothesis.

Context Dimensions

Family related or family work context variables have received treatment under this head. Three variables which were chosen for the present study are climate, influence, and involvement with family. Conceptualizations of these variables are given below which follow results and discussion of these variables.

Conceptualizations

Climate

The Background. Family climate may be viewed as a combined effect of all those aspects around the individual at home which he/she experiences by virtue of being in that particular family. It should be considered

an important determinant of family satisfaction, as work climate is an important determinant of work satisfaction. Evidence exists that environment at home might affect one's work as well as family related consequences (Lazarus, 1966; Voydanoff, 1988a).

As mentioned earlier, climate may be measured in two ways (Payne & Pugh, 1976): (i) objective climate (or the actual existence of climatic factors such as support from family members, structure, participation, and reward system) and (ii) subjective (or perceived climate in which the perception of these components by individuals is taken into account).

Direct and indirect evidence suggest that supportive and rewarding climate results in positive outcomes for the individual. Thus, there may be a favorable climate which leads to better performance, effectiveness, and subsequently satisfaction. Besides, on the other end of the continuum, there may exist unfavorable climate which gives rise to conflict, dissatisfaction, and other adverse consequences.

Studies have generally been carried out in work environments in which climate is considered a variable consisting of various dimensions. However, in the family sphere, the elements of climate are studied separately. For example, a large bulk of literature shows that greater support from husband and children results in greater satisfaction for working women (e.g., Ross, Mirowski, & Huber, 1983; Smith, 1985; Staines, Pottick, & Fudge, 1986).

Hypotheses. The studies which are available in other areas (mainly in work) suggest that favorable climate results in positive outcomes, whereas unfavorable climate leads to negative consequences (e.g., Friedlander & Margulies, 1969; Schneider & Hall, 1973; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Hence, on the basis of these studies, there is a reason to believe that a similar kind of relationship--that is, greater the perception of climate as favorable, higher is the level of satisfaction--might exist in the

context of family as well. Further, it was expected that high self image women in order to keep their self perception as a good homemaker would perceive a positive association between climate and satisfaction. Also, less externals would see this relationship more often than high externals. Following hypotheses are then developed:

- H4: There exists a positive correlation between family climate and family satisfaction.
- H5: The two groups of women differ in terms of the pattern of relationships or degree of prediction.
- H6: Self image and locus of control variables moderate the relationship between climate and satisfaction.

Influence

The Background. Influence is the extent to which one believes that he/she can regulate or control one's external environment. Power structure and actual exercise of power are very dominant aspects of marital and family life.

Researchers have shown that working outside home is an important contributor to the power structure at home (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Raven, Centers, & Rodrigues, 1975). However, a clear demarcation of boundaries of power structure for earning and nonearning life partners is demolishing slowly, since a sizeable number of women have already entered or planned to enter the laborforce. Secondly, today's family structure is transcending more towards Westernized family structure, thereby granting equal or relatively higher status to women at home.

The literature existing in this area suggests a mixed kind of data. Some studies reveal that egalitarian marriages are more satisfying (e.g., Bean, Curtis,

& Marcum, 1977; Blood & Wolfe, 1960), whereas others report that traditional marriages are more satisfying (e.g., Corrales, 1975).

Hypotheses. The above studies, directly or indirectly, point to the fact that perceived control and marital happiness are related phenomena. Yet, there is a reason to think that this relationship might not exist in the same way for everybody. Characteristics of one's self might have something to contribute to this relationship. Further, if it is accepted that working outside home has an important connection to power structure at home, it can very well be argued that occupational status at which a woman is working might bring changes in the way she perceives herself in the family role. In other words, influence as perceived by women working at higher levels might spillover in the family role. They may not, therefore, value influence as much as the women at lower levels, because they come from egalitarian families. On the basis of the above discussion, following hypotheses are framed:

- H7: There exists a positive relationship between influence and satisfaction with family life.
- H8: Women at lower jobs feel more satisfied with perceived influence than those at higher level jobs.
- H9: Self image and locus of control moderate the relationship of influence with satisfaction.

Involvement

The Background. Involvement is an affective response towards some aspect of individual's life. Therefore, family involvement is conceptualized as the degree to which a person identifies himself/herself psychologically with his/her family and family roles, the importance of family roles to the person's self image, and self concept (Yogev & Britt, 1985).

Involvement with one's family provides an opportunity to develop a sense of belongingness by virtue of being a member of that particular family. When people feel committed to their families, they share values of the family. It will be rather more appropriate to say that depending upon the power structure of the family, these values are set by women themselves. Thus, they derive personal meaning from their role performance in the family, since pursuing family objectives is consistent with their personal values. Besides, people feel good about themselves and with what they contribute at home.

It has been shown that people can have high psychological involvement both with work and with family (Bartolome & Evans, 1979; Romzek, 1985). Moreover, people vary in their levels of involvement in their families (Romzek, 1989).

Mowday et al. (1982) report that several personal characteristics such as age, tenure, and educational level have been consistently found to be related to involvement. The level at which a woman is working may as well be considered an important contributor to the relationship of involvement with satisfaction.

A positive relationship between one's involvement with organization and satisfaction has been reported by Romzek (1989), Bartlome and Evans (1979), Kessler and McRae (1982), and Staw and Ross (1985). It has also been reported that work and nonwork are related. Thus, the experiences and attitudes of the work domain get spilled over into the nonwork domain as well, and vice versa (Lambert, 1990; Romzek, 1985; Staines, 1980). Therefore, the spillover theory provides us evidence for a positive relationship of involvement in family with satisfaction.

One exception to the above findings is that the higher the commitment, the more negative the personal consequences (Randall, 1987). But, the empirical support for such findings is limited.

Hypotheses. The above findings suggest that involvement is an affirmative phenomenon and, therefore, it is expected to have positive consequences on the personal lives of committed individuals. However, several questions remain to be answered such as: what happens to the relationship of involvement with satisfaction when people have high or low self concept about themselves, or when they are chance oriented or powerful others oriented? In essence, what is the contribution of personal variables in this predictor-criterion relationship?

To meet these objectives, following hypotheses are formulated:

H10: There exists a positive relationship between involvement with family and family satisfaction.

H11: The two groups of women differ in terms of the pattern of relationships between involvement and satisfaction.

H12: Self image and locus of control moderate the predictor-criterion relationship.

Results and Discussion

Direct relationships were obtained using an stepwise multiple regression analysis. Table 3.4 presents the direct linkages between the predictors and criterion measure for both the higher and the lower groups of women. It can be seen that family climate emerged as the most dominant predictor for both the groups. However, the predictive value of climate was greater for the higher group (49% of the variance) than for the lower group (32% of the variance). Influence emerged as the second predictor for the lower group, adding 5% of the variance for the lower group. It did not show up for the higher group. Involvement occurred at the second step for the higher group, adding 5% of the

ance, whereas it was at the third step for lower level group, adding 2% of variance. Except for climate, other variables were weak predictors of family satisfaction, though almost all the regression coefficients were significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Table 3.4

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Family Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group (<i>n</i> = 150)			Lower Group (<i>n</i> = 150)		
	FI	IF	FC	FI	IF	FC
Criterion						
Change	.73	*	.70	.63	.61	.56
	.05	*	.49	.02	.05	.32
	.26 ^b	*	.70 ^b	.18 ^a	.29 ^b	.56 ^b
Order	2	*	1	3	2	1

Note. ^a*p* < .05; ^b*p* < .01; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation.

Abbreviations: FI = Family Involvement; IF = Influence in Family; FC = Family Climate.

As hypothesized, influence did not predict satisfaction for the higher group. Though weak, it did emerge as a predictor for the lower group. The reason could be that it might have an interactive relationship with other variables in predicting satisfaction. Thus, to explore this possibility, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was computed.

Out of 9 interactive pairs possible for each group, 3 were significant--two for the lower group and one for the higher group (see Figure 3.4).

Influence interacted with self image in predicting family satisfaction for both the groups. In the higher group (Figure 3.4a), those having low self image were more satisfied at their possession of greater control over events than

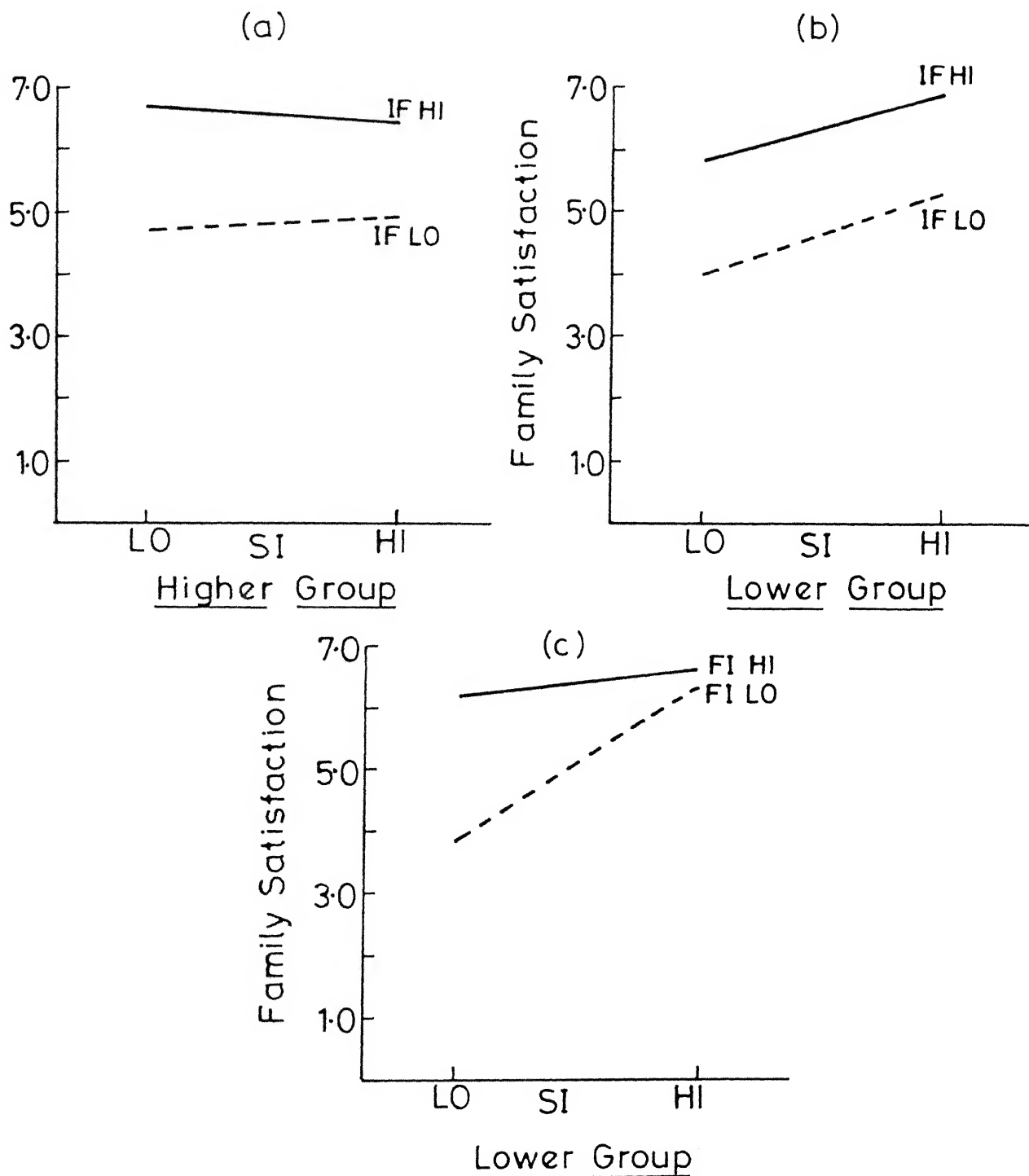
those having high self image, $\beta = .16$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 5.74$; $p < .05$. In the lower level group (Figure 3.4b) those having high self image and perceiving greater control were more satisfied than others. However, they reported least satisfaction when both influence and self image were low, $\beta = .15$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1,296) = 5.26$; $p < .05$.

Another interaction emerged between involvement and self image. In the lower group, all those having high self image reported significantly greater satisfaction with family when they had higher involvement as compared to those having low self image. However, the least satisfaction was reported by those having low self image and low involvement, $\beta = .17$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 6.10$; $p < .05$ (see Figure 3.4c).

Thus, influence-satisfaction relationship is moderated by self image of the person. Higher level woman would relate influence to her satisfaction only when she has low self regard for herself because it would enhance her perception of self as an important person. On the contrary, those at lower level jobs and having high self image consider influence over others as an added asset for satisfaction. Thus, women having high self image about themselves experience the greatest satisfaction when they perceive themselves influential.

At lower level, though the main effect of involvement can be seen (Figure 3.4c), self image affected the outcome when involvement was low. In this instance, women with low self image were the least satisfied than those with high self image.

An overall, observation of the findings suggests that climate, influence, and involvement predicted family satisfaction mostly in the hypothesized direction. Further, relationships between predictors and criterion variable were simplified more because of self related variables used in the study. Apart from this, the differentiation between two work groups of women regarding predictor-criterion relationships was observed either in terms of association with one



Mean Family satisfaction scores as a function of influence and involvement (Predictors), and self image (Moderator). Abbreviations: IF=Influence in Family; FI=Involvement in Family; SI=Self Image; LO=Low; HI=High.

another or in terms of the strength of prediction of variables.

For the higher level women, probably autonomy or independence in family work and decision-making is more valued. This may be the reason why it is associated so strongly with family satisfaction. Similarly, positive feedback from family enhances the feeling of satisfaction of lower group women.

Self image moderated the relationships of context variables with family satisfaction, suggesting that, irrespective of occupational status, dual career women often relate their attitudes towards self with family more than with family work.

Besides these variables, the demographic variables were also regressed on family satisfaction. In the lower subgroup, age of the respondent predicted family satisfaction, explaining 5% of the variance that is, the older a woman was, the more she was satisfied with family. In the higher group, none of the variables predicted the criterion.

WORK-FAMILY NEXUS

The section endeavors to capture the most important relationship of work and family domains in terms of cross domain effects of content-context variables of work and family. Specific conceptualizations regarding variables employed in the study have already been presented in the earlier sections of "work" and "family." The present discussion will be restricted to cross effects of work and family variables.

Direct Relationships

In this part, only direct relationships among the cross-domain variables will be presented in relation to work-family linkages.

Conceptualizations

The Background

An individual's life is composed of several components--the summation of all that is what life in general is. Work and family, as stated earlier, constitute a major part of experiences of life. Both the domains have extensively been studied, but separately. Until recently, little attempts have been made to point out the possibility of a relationship between the two. The growing literature now is basically emphasizing worker's work life in relation to extra-work life or life in general.

Early research on this issue examined the effects of men's employment on family life and concluded that men did not see the relationship between the two domains. (Aberle & Naegel, 1952; Dyer, 1964). However, the research during and after 1960s was mostly concerned with women's employment and its consequences on family. Among the most important variables that were found to affect the relationship of maternal employment and child development were age and sex of the child, quality of adult supervision, mother's job satisfaction, and mother's choice to work (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter, 1982; Hoffman, 1980; Moore & Sawhill, 1984). In this respect, the leading article by Voydanoff (1988a) provides a complete historical background of work-family interchange with an extensive review of studies done in the past and the current status of the issue.

Investigators have established this fact long ago that job satisfaction can be better understood in the context of life in general (e.g., Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). However, efforts to empirically relate job satisfaction to the larger life context are a relatively recent development (e.g., Turner & Lawrence, 1965; Hulin, 1966). Quality of life researchers have also incorporated job satisfaction in their research (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976; London et al., 1977; Sekaran, 1983).

The contribution of Rice et al. (1979, 1980) seems to be a landmark in this context. Rice et al. demonstrated that two types of variables may exist--subjective and objective--across all the domains of one's life (e.g., work, family, and leisure). By objective variables, they referred to those structural or objective conditions of one's job or extrawork life which might affect subjective reactions of the individual to those domains, such as type and level of job in work domain, neighborhood, and area of socialization in extrawork domain.

Subjective variables are mainly individual's reactions to the work and extrawork characteristics. Thus, considering mainly work and extra work domain, and the two types of variables, a total of six linkages are possible (see Figure 3.5). Uptil now, more attention has been paid to three linkages. They are objective conditions of extrawork and life satisfaction (linkage A); objective conditions of work and job satisfaction (linkage C); and job satisfaction with life satisfaction (linkage D).

Researchers like Iris and Barrett (1972) and London et al. (1977) have extensively reviewed and tested linkage D. Others who have studied the relationship between objective conditions of work and job satisfaction (linkage C), and between objective conditions of extrawork factors and job satisfaction (linkage F) are Locke (1976), Rice et al. (1979, 1980), and Vroom (1964).

Linkage B or the relationship between objective conditions of work and extrawork has traditionally not been attended seriously by researchers of either

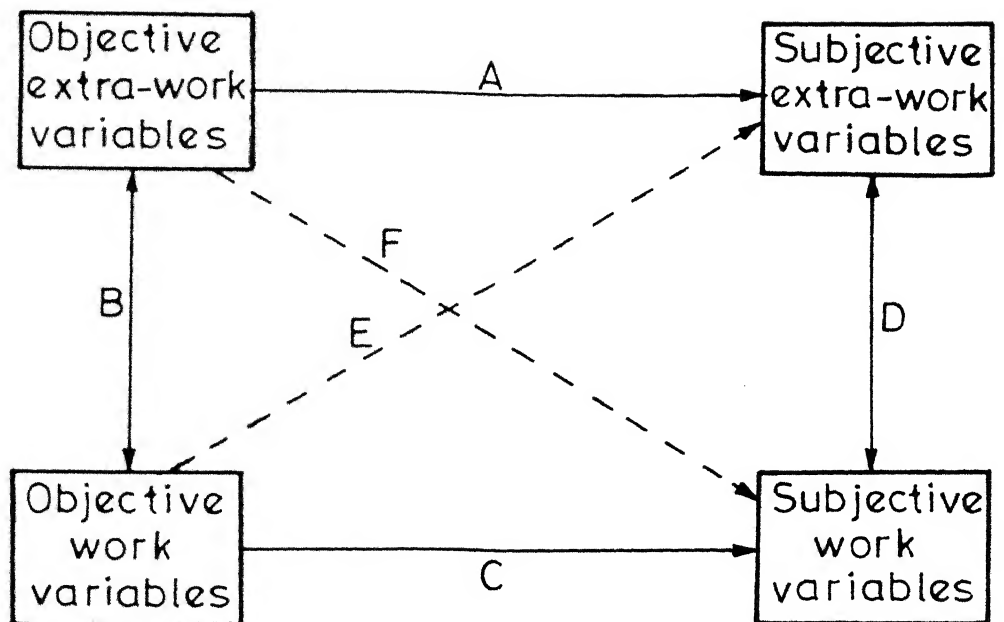


Figure 3.5. Two dimensional classification system of variables and their linkages (Adapted from Rice et al. (1979, p.606).

job satisfaction or quality of life. Another neglected area is the linkage E, or the relationship between objective conditions of work and life satisfaction. Except for the encompassing work of Kornhauser (1965), very few studies have attempted to study all or most of these linkages.

According to Rice et al. (1979), the possible reason for the unavailability of data in this regard is the following. There exists a presumption among researchers that these relationships are very weak. Following this trend, both the models proposed by Kornhauser (1965) and Seashore (1976) suggest job satisfaction being the moderator between the relationship of objective conditions of work and life satisfaction.

Some other studies have been conducted in this field by Haavio-Mannila (1971), Orpen (1978), and Schmitt and Melon (1980). Bhagat et al. (1985) tested the assumption that the behavior in work situation is influenced by outside factors. Degree of satisfaction with nonwork life as a determinant of workrole satisfaction was studied by Crosby (1984). Few more studies have showed the relationship of work variables with individual's personal and family life (Burke & Bradshaw, 1981; Burke & Greenglass, 1987).

Some researchers have obtained the direction of influence from work to family (e.g., Aldous, 1969; Mott, Mann, McLaughlin, & Warwick, 1965; Piotrkowski & Crits-Christoph, 1981; Piotrkowski & Katz, 1982; Spitze & South, 1985; Staines & Pleck, 1983; Sinha, 1990), whereas others have found reverse causality (e.g., Crouter, 1984b; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Voydanoff, 1988a).

Previous research has shown that job and life satisfaction are related to variables like community size, job characteristics, home and neighborhood, job tenure, and occupational prestige (Rice et al., 1979). Certain demographic characteristics such as age, education, and job tenure have also been found contributing to job and life satisfaction. The type of occupation one holds is

related to one's overall life satisfaction (Rundquist & Sletto 1936; Miller, 1940; Hunt et al., 1977). Jobs having responsibility, challenge, and significance may increase nonwork satisfaction moderately (Rousseau, 1978). However, contradictory results have also been cited by Siassi, Corsette, and Spiro (1975) and Wexley, McLaughlin, and Sterns (1975). A study by Lawrence (1961) on working women suggests that satisfaction with different domains of life (e.g., family) does not vary with one's income level.

Hypotheses

The discussion until now attempted to provide a glimpse of the kind of research that has been carried out in studying the work-family relationship. The advent of women in laborforce for the past few years has compelled researchers to attack this problem from a new perspective.

In the present study of work-family linkages, there were three objectives. The first was to assess the relative strength of prediction of work and family variables; that is, the within domain relationship between work variables and work satisfaction, and between family variables and family satisfaction. The second objective was to identify the secondary determinants or relationships between work-family variables and subjective variables across the domain. Finally, the third objective was to study the effect of occupational status in cross-domain relationships.

Considering these objectives of the study, following hypotheses are advanced for empirical verifications:

H1: Content and context characteristics of work predict family satisfaction.

H2: Content and context characteristics of family predict work satisfaction.

H3: The two groups of women differ in the ways work-family variables relate to work-family satisfaction.

Results and Discussion

The stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analysis was computed to assess the effects across the domains (see Chapter 2 for statistical details). The point of consideration was that, in the regression equation, variables of other domain were entered at the second step. For example, while determining the effect of work context variables on family satisfaction, the family context variables were entered first, so that the regression identified the incremental variance explained by work variables apart from family variables in family satisfaction.

Two separate sets of regression analysis were carried out--one for the higher group and another for the lower group of women. Table 3.5 provides the results for family satisfaction. Similarly, the results for work satisfaction are shown in Table 3.6. The first column gives the variance or total R^2 at each step of the regression equation. The second column shows the increment in the variance due to a particular set of variables at each step, R^2 change. The third column shows the β weight of the each variable set.

Family Satisfaction

The four sets of variables which were regressed on family satisfaction were--family context, family content, work context, and work content. The number of variables falling under each category was the same as used in earlier sections (i.e., three).

Since the fundamental aim in this section was to understand the amount of influence of work context and content variables on family satisfaction. four

regression equations were constructed--two for the higher and two for the lower groups. Two sets of variables--family context and work context, and family content and work content--were entered in each equation in the order mentioned above. In this way, it was possible to assess the impact of work variables separately for context and content dimensions without any effect of family variables.

Table 3.5 presents R^2 , increment in R^2 at each step, and β for each set of variables assessed on family satisfaction for the two groups. As is clear from Table 3.5, for the lower group of women, family context variables accounted for a total of 39% of the variance in family satisfaction. Further, 4% of the variance was significantly added to it by work context variables. For the higher group, family context variables explained much higher variance (54% of the total variance) in family satisfaction but the impact of context variables did not show up.

Table 3.5
stepwise Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Family Satisfaction)

Equation/Variables No.	Higher Level ($n = 150$)			Lower Level ($n = 150$)		
	R^2	R^2 Change	β	R^2	R^2 Change	β
(1) Family Context	.54	.54	.08 ^b	.39	.39	.26 ^b
Work Context	.55	.01	.05	.43	.04	.11 ^a
(2) Family Content	.24	.24	.27 ^b	.33	.33	.56 ^b
Work Content	.24	.00	.05	.34	.01	.05

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$.

As regards content variables, for the lower level women, 33% of the total variance was accounted for by family content variables but no significant contribution was made by work content variables. For the higher level women, similar results were obtained. Family content variables accounted for 24% of the total variance, and virtually nothing was accounted for by work content aspects.

Thus, in determining family satisfaction, work context variables contribute significantly apart from family variables--but only for the lower level group. This suggests that the direction of work-family relationship is from work to family for the lower level group. However, an interesting finding is that no cross-domain effect was found in the case of higher level women. Two plausible explanations are the following: one, it may be that these women segment their work and family domains, thus not allowing one to affect another. Two, it is possible that for these women the flow of relationship is from family to work. The second possibility is explored in the next section.

Work Satisfaction

To understand the relationship of work satisfaction with family aspects, two sets of within domain variables (that is, work content and work context) and two sets of outside domain variables (that is, family content and family context) were entered into four regression equations. Using the similar assumptions as mentioned in the earlier section of family satisfaction, the analysis was performed. In all the equations, work variables were entered first so that the influence of family variables across the domain could be assessed without any impact of work variables.

Table 3.6 gives an account of variances explained by four sets of variables at each step, increment in variance explained, and β coefficient found at each step. It is evident that, for the lower level women, work satisfaction was

predicted significantly by work context variables (13% of the variance) and also by family context variables which added 15% to the total explained variance of 28%. In the higher group also, the similar trend existed; however, the increment due to family context variables was less than that for the lower group. These variables added 3% of the variance to the total explained variance of 50%.

Table 3.6

Stepwise Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Work Satisfaction)

Equation No.	Variables	Higher Level ($n = 150$)			Lower Level ($n = 150$)		
		R^2	R^2 Change	β	R^2	R^2 Change	β
(1)	Work Context	.47	.47	.11 ^b	.13	.13	.22 ^b
	Family Context	.50	.03	.05 ^a	.28	.15	.24 ^b
(2)	Work Content	.09	.09	.31 ^b	.04	.04	.19
	Family Content	.19	.10	.18 ^b	.14	.10	.12 ^b

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$.

Work content variables did not account for any significant variation in the lower group. However, family content variables provided an increment of 10% of the total variance in predicting work satisfaction (see Table 3.6). In the higher group, however, work content variables accounted for 9% of the variance. Additionally, 10% of the variance was contributed by family content variables.

Thus, all four regressions suggest that cross-domain effects do exist both in context and content dimensions of family. These findings are consistent with those of Crouter (1984a) who suggested that employee's work life is influenced in part by one's role as a family member. Others who have obtained similar results in this regard are Rice et al. (1979, 1980) and Sekaran (1983).

One final point to be mentioned concerns context and content variables. It seems that women cherished contextual aspects more in relation to work and family satisfaction as compared to content aspects.

Interactive Relationships

This section would restrict itself to only interactive effects of work and family variables with outcome variables.

Conceptualizations

The Background

In the preceding section, the hypotheses regarding direct cross-domain effects received substantial support. That is, it has empirically been demonstrated that predictors do influence the outcome outside the domain directly. However, the next aspect which remains to be touched upon is to assess the interactive relationships of work and family predictors in determining satisfaction in both the domains. The common sense thinking would lead one to assume that these relationships would exist as work and family domains are simultaneously experienced by the individual. In this way, to some extent, these domains do overlap in terms of certain characteristics in producing outcomes.

Further, in the previous section, it has been found that positive spillover from family to work and to some extent from work to family exists. Thus, there is a reason to believe that conditions which are unfavorable or favorable in one domain may interact with similar conditions in the other domain leading to favorable or unfavorable outcomes accordingly.

The importance of the interaction between the individual and the environment has long been recognized in the social psychological literature (Lazarus, 1966). Many researchers in the field of personality and other applied

areas have established the importance of fit between the characteristics of the individual and those of the environment (e.g., Pervin, 1968, 1989). Holland (1973) acknowledged the need for congruence between a person's interests, preferences, and abilities and the factors existing in one's environment. On this basis, he formulated his theory of vocational choice. Payne, Lane, and Jabri (1989) suggested that accuracy of fit between the person and the environment leads to better psychological outcomes such as satisfaction and lack of strain.

The equation of P-E fit is well documented and supported by researchers. However, one possibility which remains unexplored is that two domains or environments may interact in order to produce certain outcomes. That is to say, though personal attributes are important in ascertaining consequences, the interaction among the domains itself is equally salient for broader outcomes and outcomes in those domains. Thus, interesting results may be achieved by assessing a fit between characteristics of the two domains (work and family in the present context) in determining satisfaction. In this way, the potentiality of certain variables, which determine satisfaction in more than one aspects of life, can be ascertained.

Hypotheses

Studies existing in the area of industrial and organizational psychology have hardly touched upon this issue. However, from the viewpoint of spillover theory, it may be assumed that greater perception of characteristics in one domain would spillover into the other domain. Thus, the interaction of these characteristics of work and family would lead to greater perception of satisfaction. This forms the basis for the following hypotheses in this regard:

H4: Content variables of work and family interact in predicting work and family satisfaction.

- H5: Context variables of work and family interact in predicting work and family satisfaction.
- H6: Occupational status moderates the relationship between predictors and criterion variables.

Results and Discussion

The hierarchical regression analysis was performed to ascertain the contribution of work-family matched variables to work and family satisfaction. Separate analyses were conducted for the two groups of women.

Family Satisfaction

In determining family satisfaction, a total of five interaction pairs (3 for context and 2 for content variables) were entered in the equation for both the groups of women separately. Out of these five interaction pairs, all three pairs of context variables were significant for the lower group and two for the higher group. But, none was significant in content variables for both the groups. Figure 3.6 displays the approximations of these interactive relationships for the higher group and Figure 3.7 for the lower group.

The first figure (Figure 3.6a) shows that the interaction of involvement in family and work leads to family satisfaction, $\beta = .20$; $R^2 = .04$; $F(1,296) = 11.35$; $p < .01$. Family satisfaction was the maximum when higher group women felt themselves highly involved with family, irrespective of the degree of involvement with organization. However, the lowest satisfaction was reported when involvement in both the domains was low.

Another interaction was obtained between influence at work and that in family. It shows that higher women reported the greatest satisfaction with

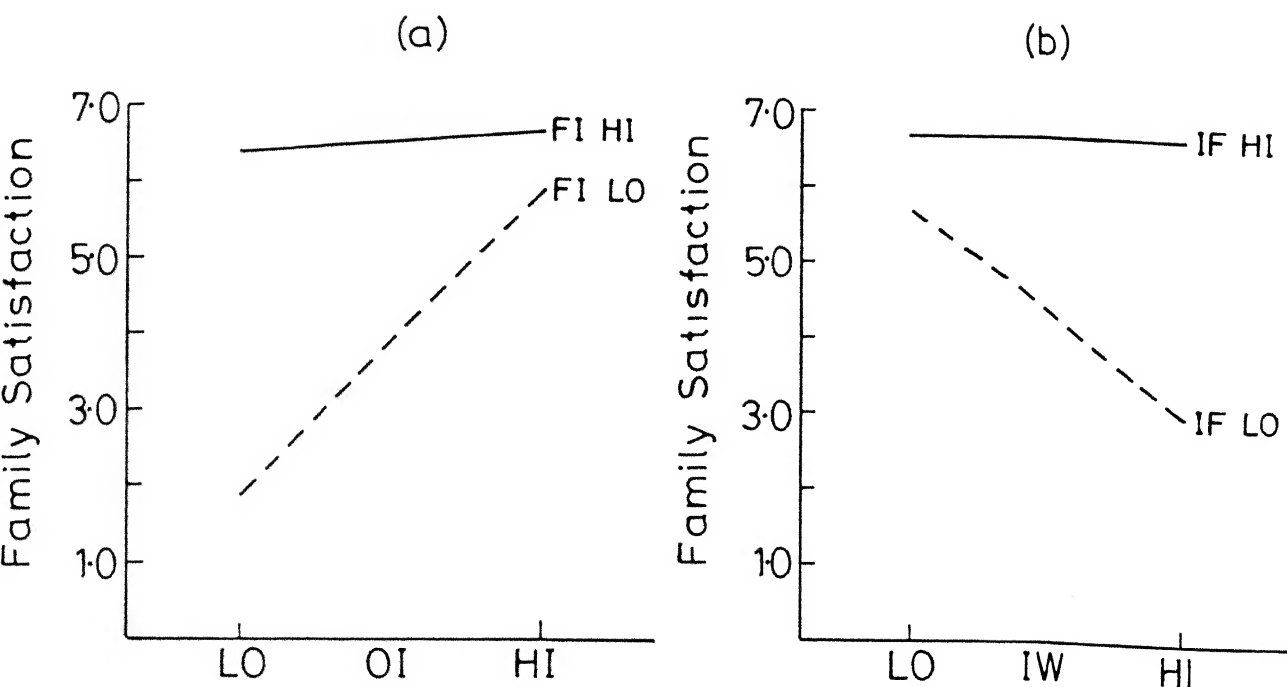


Figure 3-6. Mean family satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of the interactions of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family.

Abbreviations: OI=Organizational Involvement; IW= Influence in work; IF=Influence in work LO= Low; HI=High.

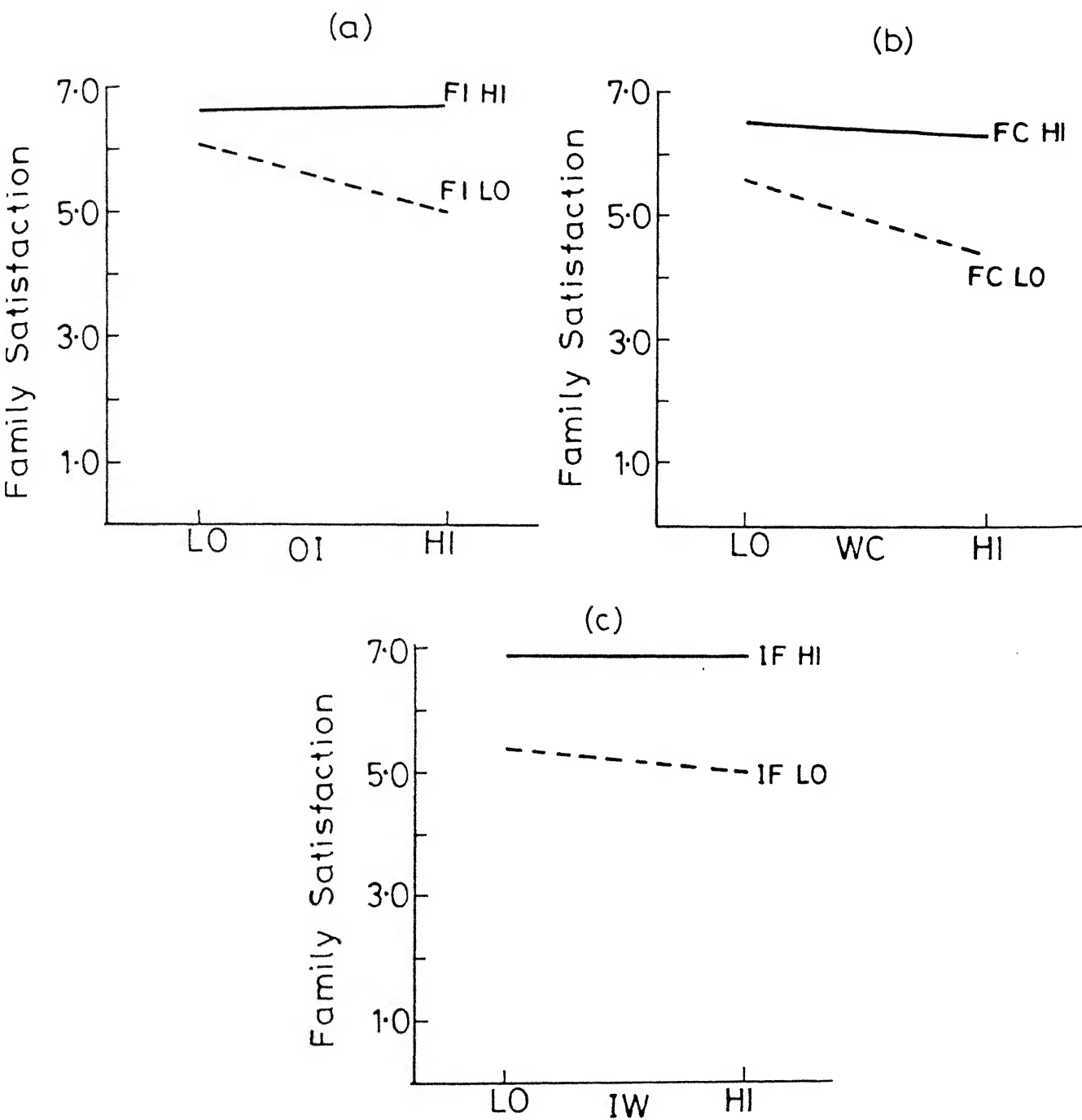


Figure 3.7. Mean family satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of interaction of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family; see Figure 3.6 for abbreviations.

family when they perceived themselves having greater influence in family and lesser at work. This fact is substantiated by the fact that the lowest satisfaction was obtained when the situation was just reverse, $\beta = .21$; $R^2 = .04$; $F(1,296) = 12.30$; $p < .01$ (see Figure 3.6b). Thus, within domain effect seems to be obvious here. However, the direct effect of influence with family satisfaction was not found to be significant earlier. Thus, the two dimensions interacting together predicted family satisfaction.

For the lower level women, support for the direct relationship of involvement and satisfaction is stronger unlike the higher group (Figure 3.7a). The highest level of family satisfaction was reported across all levels of organizational involvement, if family involvement was high. However, when organizational involvement was high but individual was less involved with family, then satisfaction tended to be low. This interaction explained 2% of the variation, $\beta = .16$; $F(1,296) = 4.67$; $p < .05$.

Another interaction was obtained between family and work climate. It was seen that family satisfaction was reported to be the highest when work climate was perceived to be less favorable but family climate was perceived to be more favorable (Figure 3.7b). The least satisfaction occurred when family climate was low and work climate was high. This interaction explained 2% of the variance, $\beta = .14$; $F(1,296) = 3.99$; $p < .05$.

Yet another interaction for the lower group was found between family and work influence. It is clear from Figure 3.7c that high perceived influence in family and low influence at work lead to the highest amount of family satisfaction. Similarly the least satisfaction was reported when influence in family was low and influence in work was high. Of the total variation, 3% was explained by this interaction, $\beta = .17$; $F(1,296) = 5.44$; $p < .05$.

One observation which can be made by looking at these figures is that, except for one (interaction of involvement for higher women), all the interactions

suggest the dominating effect of within domain variables with some amount of variation added to it due to the outside domain variables. Results were further obtained to ascertain the effect on work satisfaction.

Work Satisfaction

Five interaction pairs (3 for context and 2 for content) were tested in five regression equations, separately, for higher and lower level women. Out of these, two were significant in the case of higher level women and one in the case of lower level women. Once again, none of the content variables interaction pairs was significant. Figures 3.8 and 3.9 provide the approximations of these interactions for both the groups--higher and lower--respectively.

Figure 3.8a shows that work satisfaction was reported to be higher when involvement with both the domains was high for the higher group. However, it was low when involvement in family was high and with organization it was low. This interaction again suggests stronger support for within domain effects. However, some amount of cross-domain effects is visible because high work satisfaction was predicted when both involvements were high. This interaction predicted 5% of the total variance, $\beta = -.23$; $F(1,296) = 8.47$; $p < .01$.

In another instance (Figure 3.8b), influence in work and family predicted work satisfaction, $\beta = -.18$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 7.89$; $p < .01$. It shows that work satisfaction was greater for those higher level women who perceived high influence both in family and in work. However, the lowest level of satisfaction was reported when they perceived themselves to be less influential in both the domains.

The next interaction (Figure 3.9) shows that work satisfaction of lower level women is predicted by the interaction of work and family climate, $\beta = .17$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.45$; $p < .05$. Those who perceived climate in both the domains highly favorable were most satisfied with work. The least satisfaction

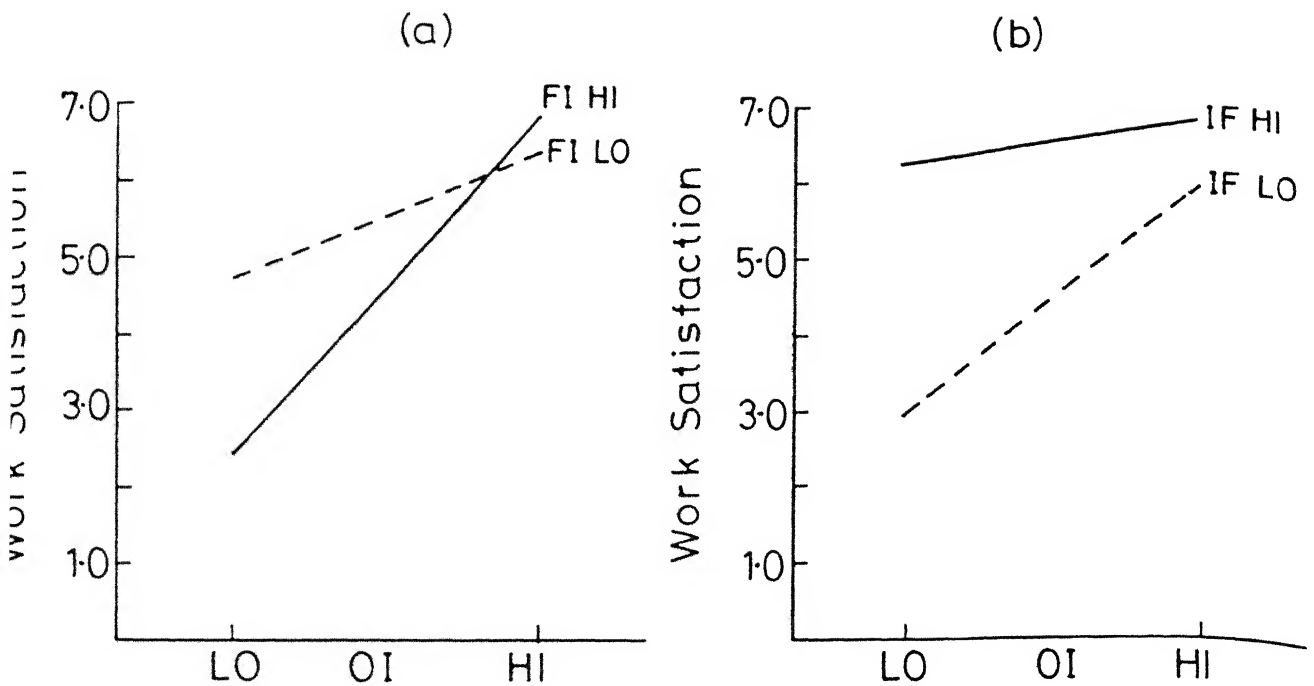


Figure 3-8. Mean work satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of interaction of (a) organizational involvement and family involvement; (b) influence in work and influence in family; see Figure 3-6 for abbreviations.

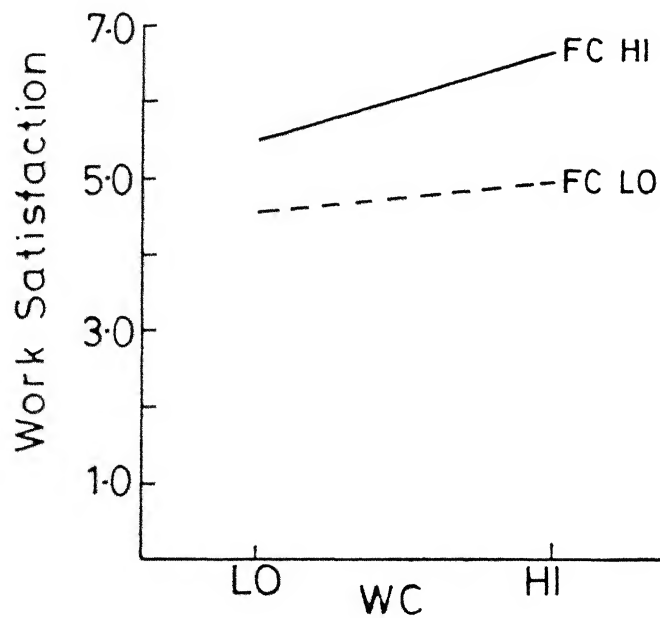


Figure 3.9. Mean work satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of interaction of work climate and family climate. Abbreviations: WC = Work Climate; FC = Family Climate; LO = Low; HI = High.

was reported when both climates were nonfavorable.

In summary, all the three interactions regarding work satisfaction provide an evidence for cross-domain effects. However, in the case of family satisfaction, the evidence is stronger for within domain effects. Though relationships are interactive, the outcome is guided more by predictors within the domain. Thus, the total picture which emerges is that the more dominating and prominent variables which predicted not only within domain effects but also affected outcomes in the other domain. These results are in congruence with those of Crouter (1984b), Kelly and Voydanoff (1985), Orthner and Pittman (1986), and Sekaran (1983). All these studies suggest that the personal life of individuals may affect the way they respond to their jobs. Steers and Rhodes (1978) have also found that family role is an important factor in workplace absenteeism in women.

Thus, overall results support the spillover theory suggesting that there is an evidence of positive spillover from family to work for both higher and lower groups of women. The difference existed in terms of family aspects, that is, for higher group women, autonomy, feedback, and meaningfulness in family related to work satisfaction, whereas climate, involvement, and influence in family related to work satisfaction for lower group women.

Chapter 4

INTERROLE AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Contents

An Overview	126
Interrole Satisfaction	127
The Background.	127
Results and Discussion	129
Work Related Dimensions	129
Family Related Dimensions	134
Life Satisfaction.	141
The Background.	141
Results and Discussion	144
Work Related Dimensions	144
Family Related Dimensions	149

An Overview

While reviewing the literature on the links between work and family domains, Voydanoff (1988a,b) indicated the possibility of joint effects of work and family on the life of an individual. Further, the negative side of this combined effect--for example, work-family conflict or interrole conflict--has been studied at length in the past. The assumption has been that the two or more roles are incompatible with each other.

However, only recently have the researchers indicated the positive consequences of having multiple roles. Since the combined positive effect occurs from multiple roles, it should be considered a broader concept than work or family satisfaction alone. Yet, the combined effect that has been labeled here "interrole satisfaction" remains a sub-component of overall life satisfaction which is even much broader and encompassing concept. Thus, to understand the effect of work-family characteristics, a deeper analysis would include studying their effect on these broader concepts, which would be helpful to understand the complex relationships in a meaningful way (Andrews & Withey, 1974, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976).

The present chapter addresses itself to the findings obtained from the present field study data and the necessary explanation attached to them. For the sake of convenience, the chapter is divided into two block heads: interrole satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Major blocks are further broken into several sections such as, the background, the hypotheses, and the results and discussion. The last section is again divided into three sections: the results related to work dimensions, those related to family dimensions, and those related to demographic variables.

INTERROLE SATISFACTION

The Background

In recent years, an extensive body of research has focused on the effects of performing multiple roles on mental and physical health. Thus, strong possibilities exist for combined effects of these multiple roles on individuals. Compatibility or congruence of two or more roles may be assumed, but as one of the measures of the combined effects of satisfaction. This resultant satisfaction has been termed "interrole satisfaction" (see Chapter 1, for details).

The concept has special significance for married working women because they are the actual bearers of dual responsibilities. Therefore, understanding the concept itself and its correlates would provide us with additional insight into work and family domains.

Since interrole satisfaction is conceptualized as a combined effect resulting from work and family domains, two alternate possibilities exist--that is, either work or family characteristics might be more dominant predictors of interrole satisfaction. Though very few studies are available on this issue, they have tried to explore both these possibilities (McKenry et al., 1985, Osipow, 1975; Rallings & Nye, 1979; Rudd & Mckenry, 1982; Shukla & Saxena, 1988).

Pleck (1977), in his conceptualization of interdependence between work and family roles, suggests that boundaries of work and family for women are asymmetrically permeable. This is owing to the fact that for them the dual responsibilities are simultaneous and thus are bound to affect each other.

Studies in the area of mental and physical health indicate that performing multiple roles is positively related to one's mental and physical health, better adjustment, and greater life satisfaction (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984). According to Seiber (1974), role privileges can assist in the

management of multiple roles, which also provide enhancement in the status and facilitates role performance, thus leading to more satisfaction. Besides, success in one role can compensate for failure in another and may bring personality enrichment, ego gratification, and so forth. Seiber (1974) also suggests that rewards in these multiple roles outweigh negative effects of role accumulation.

A sizeable number of studies in the area of work-family conflict suggest that conflict takes place due to the incompatibility between work and family characteristics (see Voydanoff, 1987, 1988a, for reviews). It is, therefore, logical to think that compatibility among the two would result in positive outcomes.

Hypotheses

Working women acknowledge both the jobs and the demands of having two roles. It is suggested, following to role theory, that a certain set of norms or sactions tend to inhibit a person moving from traditional to egalitarian role behavior (Combs & Axelson, 1978). From this exchange viewpoint, it is speculated that people move towards clusters of roles which they perceive as most rewarding but individuals least inclined to move towards these lifestyles would perceive the benefits of such role performances as negative or limited (McKenry et al., 1985). For a career woman, advancement in the profession is as important as satisfying family needs. However, it has been found that, despite these challenges, most professional women are confident of managing both roles equally well (Baron, 1987). Previous research has suggested mixed views--that is, some emphasizing more on the importance of job variables, whereas others emphasizing more on the importance of family variables. McKenry et al., (1985), in their study of dual work role satisfaction of rural women, observed that the best predictors of criterion variable were the job satisfaction related variables. However, researchers have not considered personality aspects of the

respondents. Thus, taking these variables alongwith other work-family dimensions, following hypotheses are advanced:

- H1: Interrole satisfaction is predicted by both work content and context variables.
- H2: Interrole satisfaction is predicted by both family content and context variables.
- H3: The predictor-criterion relationship is moderated by variables related to self (career orientation, self image, and locus of control).
- H4: Women at higher level jobs are more satisfied with dual work role than women at lower jobs.

Results and Discussion

Work Related Dimensions

Three work context and three work content variables (for details, see Chapters 2 and 3) were regressed on interrole satisfaction, separately, for higher and lower level women. The stepwise multiple regression analysis was computed for both the sets of variables (content and context). The results of this analysis are summarized in Tables 4.1 through 4.4. The analysis revealed that, for higher group women, meaningfulness of work was the sole predictor of interrole satisfaction among the set of content variables (see Table 4.1). It explained 3% of the total variance. For the lower group, none of the content variables explained interrole satisfaction.

Table 4.1

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Content Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group (<i>n</i> = 150)			Lower Group (<i>n</i> = 150)		
	FW	MW	VW	FW	MW	VW
Criterion						
R^2	*	.18	*	*	*	*
R^2 Change	*	.03	*	*	*	*
β	*	.18 ^a	*	*	*	*
Order	*	1	*	*	*	*

Note. ^a $p < .05$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation.
Abbreviations: FW = Feedback in Work; MW = Meaningfulness in Work; VW = Variety in Work.

Organizational involvement significantly predicted interrole satisfaction in the higher subgroup among the set of context variables (Table 4.2). It accounted for 4% of the total variance. None of the work variables significantly predicted interrole satisfaction for the lower group of women.

Table 4.2

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Context Variables (Predictors) and Interrole satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group ($n = 150$)			Lower Group ($n = 150$)		
	OI	IW	WC	OI	IW	WC
R^2	.20	*	*	*	*	*
R^2 Change	.04	*	*	*	*	*
β	.20 ^a	*	*	*	*	*
Order	1	*	*	*	*	*

Note. ^a $p < .05$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: OI = Organizational Involvement; IW = Influence in Work; WC = Work Climate.

Two possible reasons can be given for this sort of findings. One, probably family dimensions dominate (in the paucity of work variables) as strong predictors of interrole satisfaction. Two, the self related characteristics might play an important role in this prediction.

The second possibility was explored by analyzing the data further to see the effect of four moderators (self image, career orientation, and chance and powerful others loci of control) used in the study. Out of 24 pairs of possible interactions (predictors X moderators) for both the groups, separately, one was found significant for the higher group and two for the lower group (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1a shows the interaction between work climate and self image of the high occupational level group. In the case of less conducive climate, the level

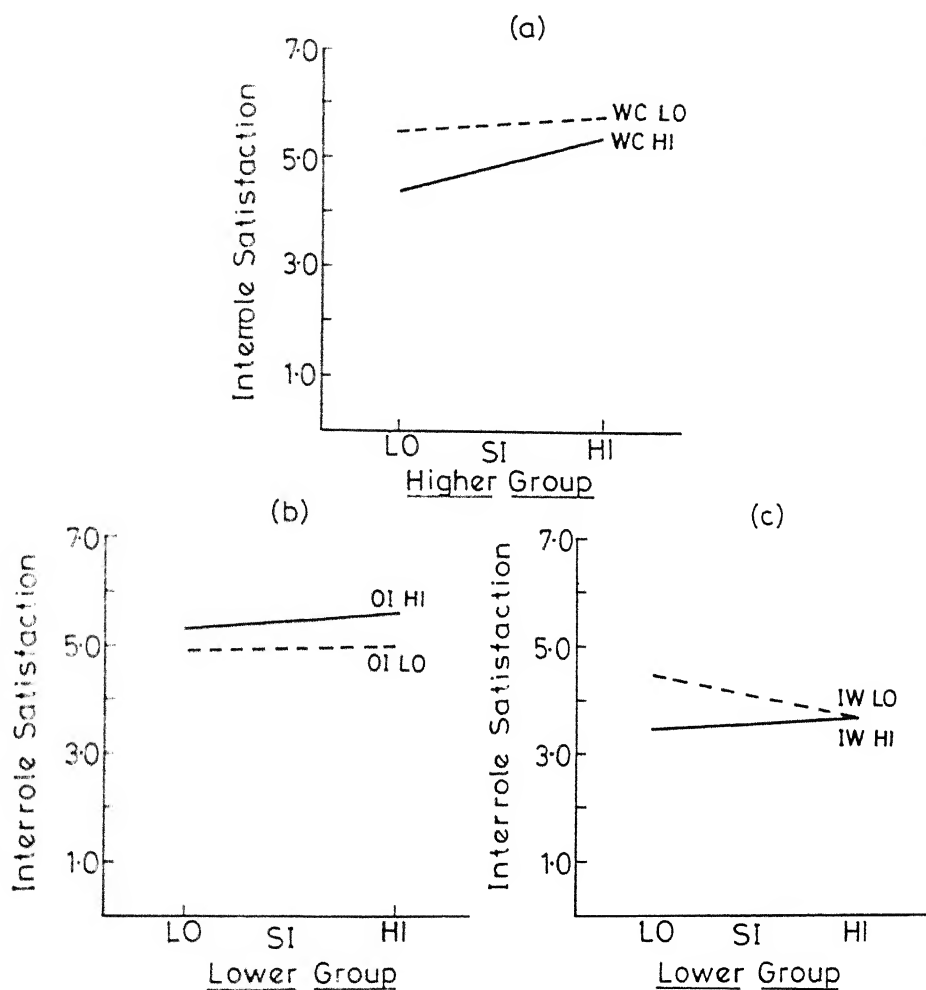


Figure 4.1. Mean interrole satisfaction scores as a function of work climate, organizational involvement and influence in work (Predictors), and self image (Moderator). Abbreviations: WC= Work Climate; OI= Organizational Involvement; IW= Influence in work; SI= Self Image; LO= Low; HI= High.

of interrole satisfaction was greater when self image was very positive. The difference due to self image was more prominent when work climate was favorable, with high self image possessors reporting greater interrole satisfaction, $\beta = .20$; $R^2 = .04$; $F(1,296) = 5.89$; $p < .01$ (see Chapter 3, for details). This could be because work climate is a direct predictor of work satisfaction. However, when climate interacts with self image of women as dual worker, it predicts interrole satisfaction.

In the lower subgroup, those having high self image perceived a positive relationship between interrole satisfaction and organizational involvement, $\beta = .16$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 3.91$; $p < .05$ (see Figure 4.1b). In the case of low involvement, no difference due to self image was observed in the level of satisfaction.

In another instance, women of lower subgroup were more satisfied when they perceived low influence in work and had low self image than when they had high self image, $\beta = .16$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 3.86$; $p < .05$ (see Figure 4.1c). Moreover, no difference due to influence existed in the level of satisfaction when the self image was high.

Thus, the moderating hypothesis seems to receive support in this case. Women of lower jobs were more satisfied when the environment was consistent with their self image. That is, for high self image possessors, satisfaction had a positive relationship with involvement and influence in the work domain. On the contrary, those having low self image perceived a negative relationship between these aspects.

In the case of upper level job holders, highly dynamic and conducive climate would be very supportive and satisfying, as far as satisfaction from work life is concerned. However, for those who have very positive self image regarding themselves as a dual worker, this kind of climate in work would be very demanding if they want to keep up with the situation around them. This would hamper their

perception as a successful dual worker and, therefore, less conducive climate which is also less demanding and time consuming is suited for them to experience interrole satisfaction.

Family Related Dimensions

The stepwise multiple regression analysis results showed that, out of 3 family content variables (see also Chapters 2 and 3, for details), only autonomy was significantly and positively related to interrole satisfaction for the higher group. It explained 4% of the total variance (Table 4.3). However, no other variable for this group and none for the lower group were found to be significant enough to predict criterion variable.

Table 4.3

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Content Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group (<i>n</i> = 150)			Lower Group (<i>n</i> = 150)		
	FF	MF	AF	FF	MF	AF
Criterion	FF	MF	AF	FF	MF	AF
R^2	*	*	.19	*	*	*
R^2 Change	*	*	.04	*	*	*
β	*	*	.19 ^a	*	*	*
Order	*	*	1	*	*	*

Note. ^a $p < .05$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation.
Abbreviations: FF = Feedback in Family; MF = Meaningfulness in Family; AF = Autonomy in Family.

Among the context variables in the family domain, family climate emerged as the single significant variable predicting interrole satisfaction for both the

groups (see Table 4.4). However, it was a much weaker predictor for the higher group (3% of the variance) than for the lower group (14% of the variance).

Table 4.4

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Interrole Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group ($n = 150$)			Lower Group ($n = 150$)		
	FI	IF	FC	FI	IF	FC
Criterion	FI	IF	FC	FI	IF	FC
R^2	*	*	.17	*	*	.37
R^2 Change	*	*	.03	*	*	.14
β	*	*	.17 ^a	*	*	.37 ^b
Order	*	*	1	*	*	1

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: FI = Family Involvement; IF = Influence in Family; FC = Family Climate.

It is likely that rest of the variables may predict interrole satisfaction in interaction with personal variables. Thus, to explore this possibility, data were further analyzed to observe interactions. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that, out of 24 pairs of interaction (predictors X moderators) for both the levels separately, only four were significant for the higher group three for the lower group.

Figure 4.2 outlines the approximations of the obtained predictor-moderator interactions for the higher group. It is clear from Figure 4.2a that family climate interacted with self image. A high level of interrole satisfaction was reported by those women who possessed high self image and perceived climate to be

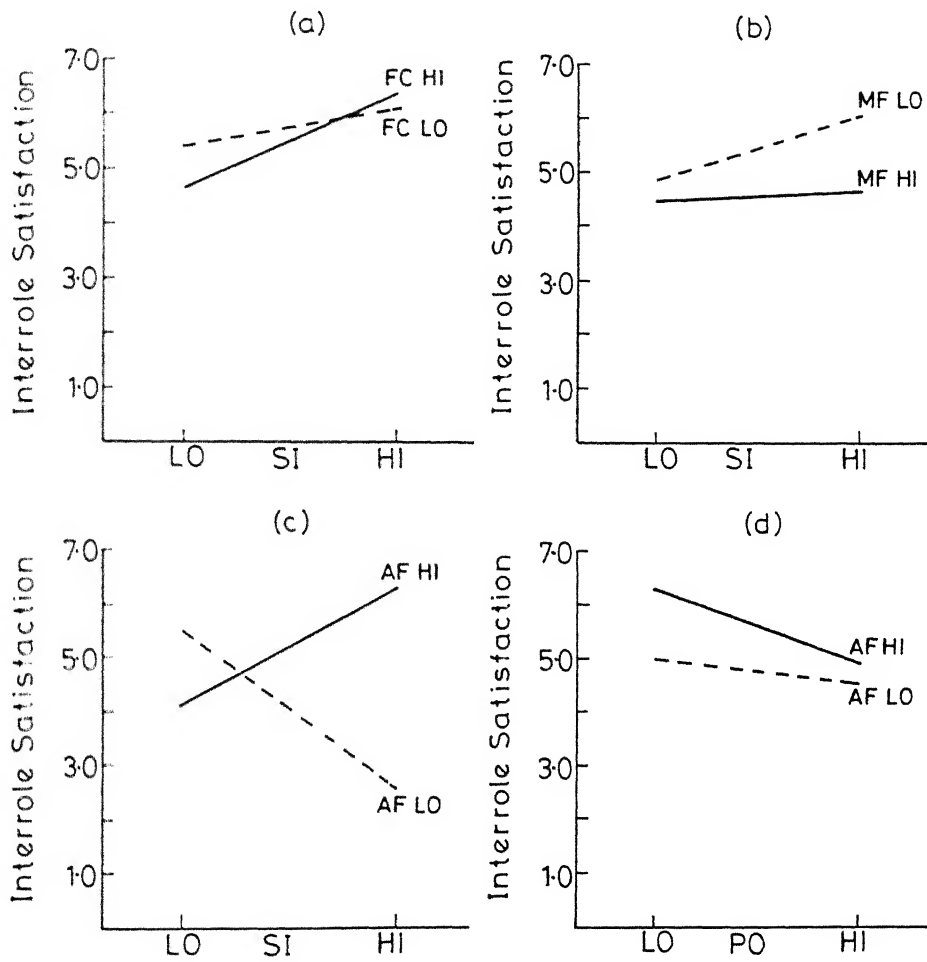


Figure 4.2. Mean interrole satisfaction scores for the higher group as a function of family climate, meaning fulness, and autonomy in family (Predictors) and self image and powerful others (Moderators). Abbreviations: FC=Family Climate; MF=Meaningfulness in Family; AF=Autonomy in Family; PO=Powerful Others; see Figure 4.2 for other abbreviations.

favorable, $\beta = .17$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.49$; $p < .05$. The lowest level of satisfaction was reported by those having low self image and perceiving highly favorable climate.

In the next instance (Figure 4.2b), meaningfulness of family work interacted with self image, $\beta = .24$; $R^2 = .06$; $F(1,296) = 9.00$; $p < .01$. Here, findings were somewhat unexpected in the sense that interrole satisfaction was high when meaningfulness was perceived to be low by women possessing high self image. However, when meaningfulness was high, then self image did not cause significant differences in the level of satisfaction.

Further, a very clear interaction between self image and autonomy is shown in Figure 4.2c. High self image women perceived a positive relationship between autonomy in family and satisfaction, $\beta = .32$; $R^2 = .10$; $F(1,296) = 16.32$; $p < .01$. However, when self image was low, then those perceiving less autonomy were more satisfied in comparison to those perceiving high autonomy.

The last interaction in this group was found between autonomy and powerful others locus of control (Figure 4.2d). Highly powerful others oriented women were less satisfied in both high and low autonomy situations. However, satisfaction was the highest when less powerful others oriented women experienced high autonomy, $\beta = -.20$; $R^2 = .04$; $F(1,296) = 6.39$; $p < .01$. These findings are in the predicted direction. The less is the perception of powerfulness of others, the greater is the experience of autonomy in the family which consequently leads to greater interrole satisfaction.

Figure 4.3 reveals interactions between family predictors and moderators for the lower group. The first approximation shows the interaction of family involvement with self image (Figure 4.3a). The maximum satisfaction was reported by those having low self image and reporting high involvement with their family. The least satisfaction occurred when high self image women experienced low family involvement, $\beta = .16$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1,296) = 4.10$; $p < .05$.

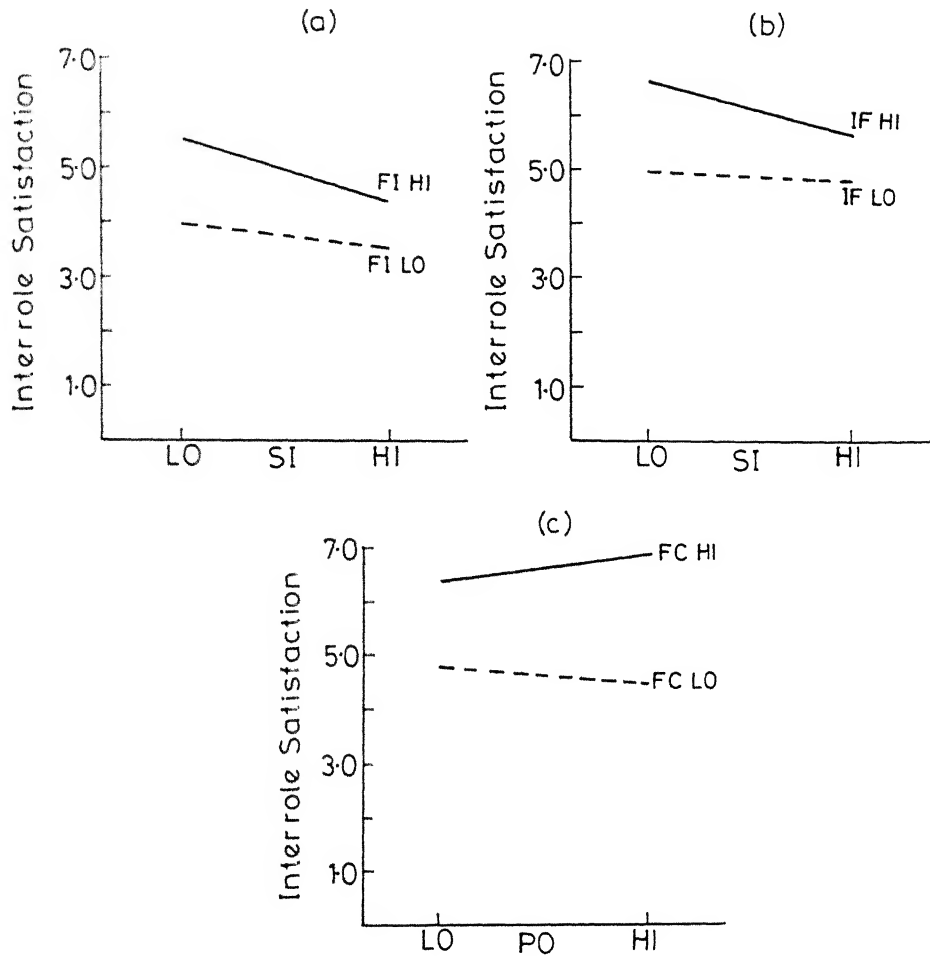


Figure 4.3. Mean interrole satisfaction scores of lower group as a function of involvement, influence and climate in family (Predictors), and self image and powerful others (Moderators). Abbreviations: FI=Family Involvement; IF=Influence in Family; FC=Family Climate; see Figure 4.1 for other abbreviations.

In another instance (Figure 4.3b), high influence in the family predicted more satisfaction for those having low self image as compared to those having high self image. Low influence predicted interrole satisfaction equally well across both the levels of self image, $\beta = .15$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1, 296) = 3.62$; $p < .05$.

Finally, family climate interacted with powerful others orientation (Figure 4.3c). Interrole satisfaction was greater for those highly powerful others oriented women who had more favorable family climate than those who had less favorable climate. In the latter case, the least satisfaction was reported, $\beta = .15$; $R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 296) = 3.68$; $p < .05$.

Results for the lower group showed exactly the opposite trend to what was obtained for the higher group. That is, unlike the higher group, high degree of predictors along with low degree of moderators (reverse in the case of powerful others) predicted satisfaction. The reason for such a disparity could lie in their occupational status. For higher level women high self image plays a very crucial role in predicting interrole satisfaction which gets aggravated in the presence of other situational variables. However, in the case of lower occupational status, family aspects if perceived in greater amount, are more relevant and thus compensate for the low degree of self image in determining interrole satisfaction. Thus, the moderating hypothesis receives some support, but whereas personal factors (self image) are more important for the higher group, environmental factors (influence and involvement) are more crucial for the lower group.

Considering the overall results in this section, the relationships were obtained mostly in the predicted direction. In both the subgroups, family aspects in interaction with self related variables more prominently predicted interrole satisfaction than those of work related aspects. These findings are somewhat different from the results obtained by McKenry et al. (1985). A culture based explanation may be sought in this regard. Indian women, whether low or high in terms of status, generally place much importance to their families as compared

to women abroad. This is owing to the fact that marriage is a very strong and steady institution in India and it has an overencompassing effect on the overall life of a woman.

Secondly, according to the role theory, the society by and large anticipates certain normative behaviors to be fulfilled by a woman having marital life. That is, her role as a mother and wife which is traditionally assigned to her attaches certain expectations with her role that prescribe her first to be a homemaker and then an earner. Interesting findings are obtained in this regard because women seem to identify themselves more with their family than with their worklife.

One observation is clear that self image is a single best moderator for both the groups of women. Its effect is even more pronounced in family related variables. This implies that women's self perception as a dual worker is a strong contributor to various outcomes in life and specially for interrole satisfaction.

None of the work related content aspects showed any relationship with the criterion variable in the case of lower group. In the case of higher group, only meaningfulness emerged as a significant predictor that too was quite weak. The reason for such findings may be that all the women of the present study perceived external locus of control. Content dimensions may be thought to relate more to satisfaction for internals than for externals (Kroop, 1981; Seeman & Evans, 1972). Probably this is the reason why these variables were not quite relevant in predicting criterion variable.

The second reason could be that probably the jobs were structurally such that they did not provide considerable amount of horizontal width. Greater autonomy, variety, significance, etc. are expected more in the private sector than in the public sector organizations which formed the sample for the present study. Probably, the inclusion of ownership would have shown much better outcomes.

The third explanation can be given for the variables not showing up is that the measure which was adopted to assess interrole satisfaction was a comparative measure. That is, respondents had to evaluate themselves in relation to other working, nonworking, and nonmarried counterparts (see Appendix A). More fruitful findings could be achieved by identifying specific parameters of interrole satisfaction and by applying a measure based on those parameters.

The Demographic Variables

The stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to assess whether demographic variables had any effect on the criterion variable. The obtained findings show that none of these variables had any significant relationship with interrole satisfaction for both the groups. This may be because all these variables were initially controlled at the time of selecting the sample. Thus, it provides support for no within-group variances.

LIFE SATISFACTION

The Background

Life satisfaction is defined as well-being and effective functioning in major areas or domains of one's life. Quality of life researchers have observed that job and life satisfaction are the primary determinants of perceived quality of life for the worker population (Near et al., 1980; Orpen, 1978; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976).

Recently, this concept has received considerable attention by social and organizational psychologists interested in finding out the connection between work and nonwork domains (London et al., 1977; Rice et al., 1979, 1980; Schmitt & Mellon, 1980). In the past, investigators had argued that the subject of job

satisfaction could be better understood if it was placed within the context of the workers' total life situation (e.g., Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). However, actual efforts to empirically test job satisfaction in relation to a broader life context is relatively a recent development (e.g., Hulin, 1966, 1969; Turner & Lawrence, 1965).

Iris and Barrett (1972) and London et al. (1977) have quite extensively explored the relationship between life and job satisfaction. Their research was different from the rest of the traditional quality of life researchers because they focused on several moderators of job-life satisfaction relationships (e.g., demographic variables and facets of job). Earlier researchers conceptualized (see Chapter 1, for details) the concept of life satisfaction as a composition of satisfaction from several aspects of life (Andrews & Withey, 1974; Campbell et al., 1976).

Life satisfaction has been found to be correlated with some basic characteristics of the job. The type of occupation one holds is an important variable in determining life satisfaction (Hunt, Near, Rice, Graham, & Gutteridge, 1977; Miller, 1940; Rundquist & Sletto, 1936). The relative prestige of job has a positive relationship to overall life satisfaction (Haavio-Mannilla, 1971; Hunt et al., 1977). Job tenure has been found to be a correlate of life satisfaction (Hunt et al., 1977). Moreover, uneven sharings of household burdens by women with the additional pressures experienced, therefore, has been found to adversely affect both work and life satisfaction (Jones & Butler, 1980).

A group of investigators have examined the nature and correlates of life satisfaction usually construing this in terms of people's expressed satisfaction with features of their environment and everyday life. Thus, it is measured by a global index in which positives and negatives from many areas are simply summed up to produce a single univariate dimension. It was found that although measures of well-being in different domains were correlated, there is reason to consider

each domain independent. Personal happiness has often been adopted as one of the measures of life satisfaction in national surveys (e.g., Quinn & Shepard, 1974).

The effects of workplace aspects on a person's life satisfaction may be assessed by asking the importance of work to overall life satisfaction. Dubin (1956), in his studies of work as central life interest, originally phrased this question. Jobs that provide higher levels of responsibility and challenge may increase nonwork satisfaction (Rousseau, 1978). According to Kline and Cowan (1988), the impact of work on well-being is moderated by several variables, and the psychological meaning that individual assigns to work both inside and outside the home is one of them.

The importance of work in the respondents' life has been found to vary drastically with types of occupation (Dubin, 1956; Gottlieb, 1974; Kornhauser, 1965; Parker, 1971).

Hypotheses

As the earlier section focused on the importance of work-family predictors in the determination of interrole satisfaction, the present section deals with the relevance of the same for overall life satisfaction. The studies done in the past in this direction suggest that variables like occupational status and job characteristics relate to life satisfaction. In view of this, it may be expected that higher level women would perceive the presence of work characteristics more than the lower level women, since their jobs are more egalitarian and closer to those of men. But, this relationship again may be moderated by some personal orientations. Thus the following hypotheses were developed:

- H1: Life satisfaction is predicted by both work content and context variables.
- H2: Life satisfaction is predicted by both family content and context variables.
- H3: The predictor-criterion relationship is moderated by variables related to self (career orientation, self image, and locus of control).
- H4: The higher the status of the women, the greater is the perception of content and context characteristics, thereby leading to more life satisfaction.

Results and Discussion

Work Related Dimensions

The stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed for both the samples of women in order to examine the direct relationship between the work related variables and the criterion measure. Results revealed that all the three work content variables significantly predicted life satisfaction but only for the higher group (Table 4.5). These variables together explained a total of 19% of the variance. Meaningfulness of work emerged as the strongest predictor, accounting for a total of 14% of the variance. This was followed by variety (adding 3% of the variance) and feedback (adding 2% of the variance).

Table 4.5 also shows that, in the lower group, none of the work content variables significantly predicted the criterion variable. One possible reason could be that the extent to which external or internal job components are valued is an important outcome of one's occupational level. The higher the status, the greater is the value for internal job characteristics (Centers & Bugental, 1966; Gurin et al., 1960; Jurgenson, 1947).

Table 4.5

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Content Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion)

Criterion	Predictors			Higher Group (<i>n</i> = 150)			Lower Group (<i>n</i> = 150)		
	FW	MW	VW	FW	MW	VW	FW	MW	VW
R^2	.43	.37	.40	*	*	*	*	*	*
R^2 Change	.02	.14	.03	*	*	*	*	*	*
β	.16 ^a	.37 ^b	.17 ^a	*	*	*	*	*	*
Order	3	1	2	*	*	*	*	*	*

Note. ^a $p < .05$; ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: FW = Feedback in Work; MW = Meaningfulness in Work; VW = Variety in Work;

Another other reason could be that these aspects are relevant only for a particular group of lower level women. In other words, they might occur in combination with self-related variables. This possibility has been explored in the later part of this chapter.

Table 4.6 presents the stepwise regression analysis results of context variables for the higher and lower groups of women. It is clear that a total of 28% of the variance has been explained by these variables in the case of higher group, whereas this contribution is only 7% in the case of lower group. Work climate alone accounted for 24% of the variance followed by involvement (adding 4%) in the higher group. In the lower group, only climate emerged as a significant factor. Thus, the more favorable the climate at work, the higher is the level of life satisfaction. However, the strength of this relationship is much higher for the higher group of women.

Table 4.6

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Work Context Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion)

Criterion	Predictors			Higher Group (n = 150)			Lower Group (n = 150)		
	OI	IW	WC	OI	IW	WC	OI	IW	WC
R^2	.53	*	.49	*	*	.26			
R^2 Change	.04	*	.24	*	*	.07			
β	.24 ^b	*	.49 ^b	*	*	.26 ^b			
Order	2	*	1	*	*	1			

Note. ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation. Abbreviations: OI = Organizational Involvement; IW = Influence in Work; WC = Work Climate.

After observing the direct effects, the data were treated with a series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The analysis revealed that out of 24 possible pairs of interactions (predictors X moderators) for both the groups separately, only two were significant for the higher group and two for the lower level (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4a reveals that career orientation moderated the relationship of job feedback and life satisfaction for higher level women. For high career oriented women, more presence of feedback was necessary for life satisfaction to be experienced. However, low career orientation in interaction with high feedback leads to greater satisfaction, $\beta = -.18$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.99$; $p < .05$.

Another approximation points at the moderating effect of self image on the relationship of variety in work and life satisfaction (Figure 4.4b). It shows that for high self image possessors, low variety jobs bring more life satisfaction than do high variety jobs, $\beta = .16$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.53$; $p < .05$.

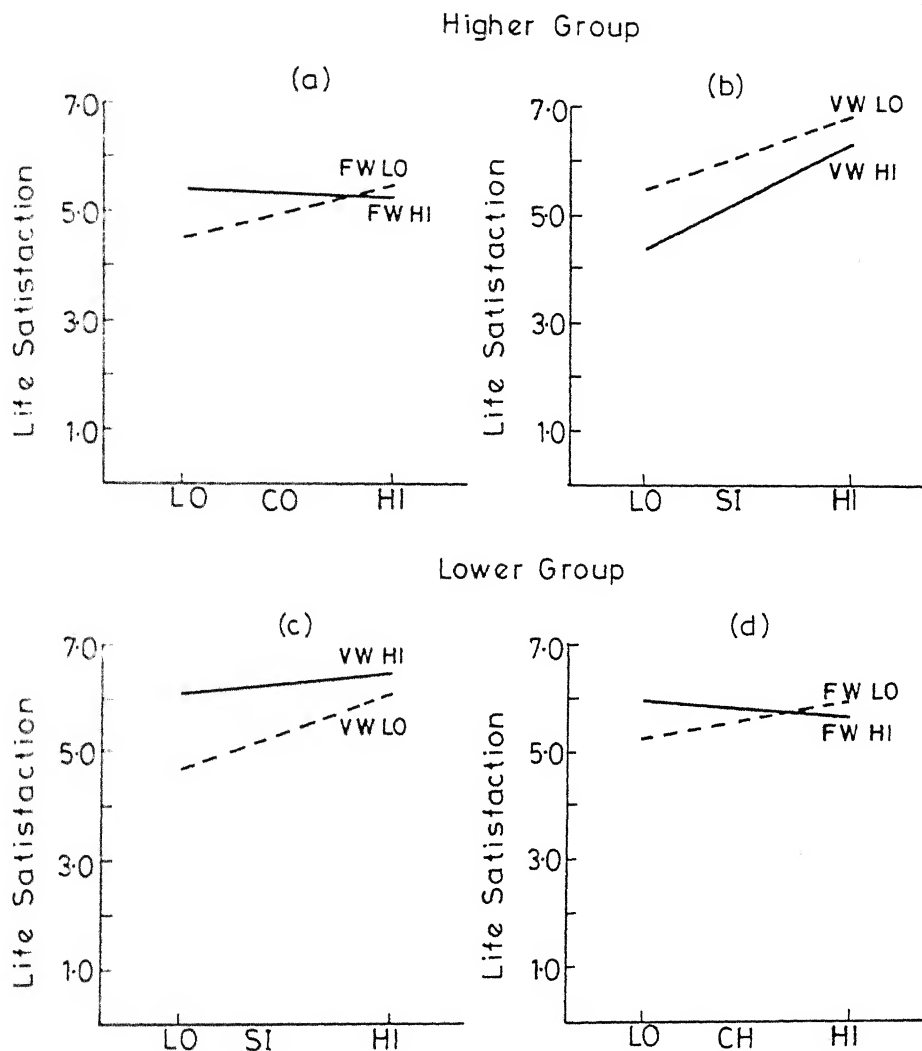


Figure 4.4. Mean life satisfaction scores as a function of feed back and variety in work (Predictors) and career orientation, self image, and chance (Moderators). Abbreviation: FW=Feedback in work; VW=Variety in work; CO=Career Orientation; CH=Chance; see Figure 4.1 for other abbreviations

Variety interacted with self image in the case of lower group also (Figure 4.4c). However, unlike the higher group, high variety jobs brought more life satisfaction in the presence of self image. The effect of high or low self image was more alarming in the case of low perception of job variety. When low self image women perceived low variety, their level of satisfaction was the least, $\beta = -.18$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 5.43$; $p < .05$.

Finally, feedback interacted with chance locus of control (Figure 4.4d). It should be noted that feedback had interacted with career orientation in the case of higher group women. These findings show a similar trend in the sense that life satisfaction is the highest when high feedback is perceived by a low chance oriented women, $\beta = -.16$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1,296) = 3.80$; $p < .05$.

The findings suggest several themes in the data. (i) Whereas the higher group women value career orientation, the life of lower level women is guided more by chance events. (ii) Feedback in work is an important determinant of life satisfaction for both the samples. (iii) A moderate amount of content characteristics is required for greater life satisfaction in the case of higher group, whereas a greater amount of these characteristics is required for the lower group. This is because very high level of these aspects would not be consistent with their positive self image of a dual worker. Here, once again, self characteristics are more important for the higher group and environmental dimensions for the lower group as far as the person-environment (P-E) interaction is concerned. (iv) High variety jobs are unlikely in the lower group; for if they perceive it, their self esteem is boosted and ultimately the amount of life satisfaction shoots up. As Korman's (1970, 1976) self consistency theory suggests, individual's self perception as a competent and worthy person is related to his or her view of work.

Family Related Dimensions

The stepwise multiple regression analysis revealed that, out of the three family content variables, only one was significant for the higher group and one for the lower group (Table 4.7). Autonomy in family explained a total of 8% of the variance in the higher group sample. But, the lower group women valued feedback given by family members as the only important factor (a total of 17% of the variance).

Table 4.7

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Content Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group (n = 150)			Lower Group (n = 150)		
	FF	MF	AF	FF	MF	AF
R ₂	*	*	.28	.41	*	*
R ² Change	*	*	.08	.17	*	*
β	*	*	.28 ^b	.41 ^b	*	*
Order	*	*	1	1	*	*

Note. ^bp < .01; * Tolerance level insufficient for further computation.
Abbreviations: FF =Feedback in Family; MF = Meaningfulness in Family; AF = Autonomy in Family.

As to the family context variables, the analysis showed that family climate appeared to be the only predictor for the higher group, explaining 13% of the variance. Similarly, influence in the family predicted life satisfaction in the case of lower group (21% of the variance).

Table 4.8

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Results--Family Context Variables (Predictors) and Life Satisfaction (Criterion)

Predictors	Higher Group ($n = 150$)			Lower Group ($n = 150$)		
	FI	IF	FC	FI	IF	FC
Criterion	FI	IF	FC	FI	IF	FC
R^2	*	*	.37	*	.45	*
R^2 Change	*	*	.13	*	.21	*
β	*	*	.37 ^b	*	.45 ^b	*
Order	*	*	1	*	1	*

Note. ^b $p < .01$; * Tolerance level insufficient for the further computation. Abbreviations: FI=Family Involvement; IF=Influence in Family; FC=Family climate.

To explore the interactive relationships, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Out of 18 possible pairs of interaction for each sample, only two for the higher group were significant. Figure 4.5 presents the two interaction approximations.

Figure 4.5a suggests that career orientation of the higher group women interacted with feedback. High career oriented women did not perceive a very positive connection between feedback from family and life satisfaction. However, when feedback was high, then moderate-to-high level of satisfaction was experienced by both the high and the low career oriented women, $\beta = -.16$; $R^2 = .03$; $F(1,296) = 4.19$; $p < .05$.

In another instance (Figure 4.5b), involvement with family interacted with self image. When involvement was low, then high self image possessors were more satisfied than were the low self image possessors, $\beta = -.15$; $R^2 = .02$; $F(1,296) = 3.89$; $p < .05$. The lowest life satisfaction was reported by low self image

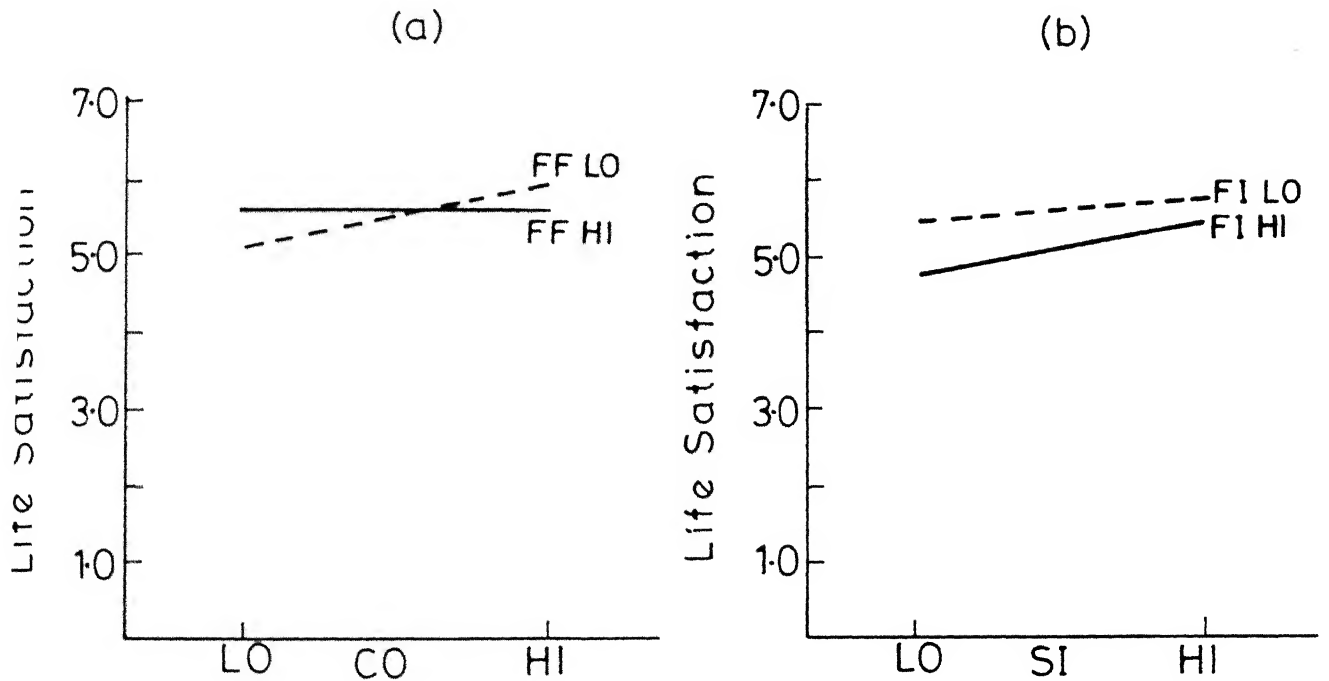


Figure 4.5. Mean life satisfaction scores of higher group as a function of feed back and involvement in family (Predictors), and career orientation and self image (Moderators). Abbreviations: FF=Feed back in Family; FI=Family Involvement; see Figures 4.1 and 4.4 for other abbreviations.

possessors when they perceived themselves highly involved with their family.

The present analyses suggest that personality characteristics do moderate the relationship of family predictors with life satisfaction. The self characteristics act generally as enhancer in the predictor-criterion relationship. Secondly, high self image possessors and career oriented women do not feel very satisfied in the presence of very high degree of family characteristics favorable to them. Rather, a moderate or low degree of involvement, feedback, etc. is needed for better adjustment which is consistent with their self perception as an individual successfully dealing with two roles.

This has special significance for involvement. A high degree of involvement in one sphere might hinder involvement in the other. Also, it has been reported that highly committed people are neither more nor less likely to have a high positive self image, nor do they express more satisfaction with either work or nonwork (Brook, 1991).

Looking at the overall findings in this section, it may be concluded that the content and context dimensions of work and family did predict life satisfaction in the expected direction. Thus, in this respect, the study corroborates the findings of Near et al. (1978) and others who examined the work and nonwork correlates of both general life satisfaction and job satisfaction.

Further, the two groups differed in the way these relationships occurred, including the effect of moderator variables. Self image emerged as a strong self related variable which interacted with work-family variables to predict life satisfaction. Career orientation and chance locus of control also occurred but very infrequently. Thus, person-environment interaction hypothesis received further support which, in simple terms, assumes that the more the congruence between the person and the environment the better the psychological outcomes (Lewin, 1951; Harrison, 1976; Pervin, 1968).

Another conclusion that can be drawn is that, for the higher group, both work and family predictors contributed to life satisfaction, whereas in the other group, work-related factors appeared less frequently than family predictors. In the higher group, climate both at work and family explained a major proportion of the variance in life satisfaction. Influence did not emerge in any of the domains. The possible reason could be that, for these women, it might be related to career success in the workfield (Greenhaus, 1987) and to family adjustment, decision-making in the area of family. Besides, their socioeconomic status allows them to enjoy more egalitarian position both at home and at work. Moreover, expectation from their role as a homemaker provides less normative and traditional behavior pattern from them. It leads them to have a much equalitarian power structure at home. Thus, being accustomed to such atmosphere, it does not add to their life satisfaction any more.

In the other group, very few relationships have emerged suggesting that probably more basic aspects are the determinants of life satisfaction for this group. Brook (1991) and Korman (1970) reported that challenging, varied, and goal directed work may be important determinants of one's satisfaction but only for those having high self esteem. And since self esteem, being a characteristic of self, is more valued by higher level women, it provides more reason to believe that content variables would cause satisfaction more in higher than in lower level women.

Feedback from both work and family seems to be an important contributor to life satisfaction in lower group women. The reason for other variables not emerging may be that these aspects were particularly related to their specific work and family satisfaction (see Chapter 3). For these women, probably, work and family predictors taken in the present study form a very small and nonsignificant segment of life satisfaction. Other aspects of life such as leisure activities, religion, etc. might have more pronouncing effects on life satisfaction

for this sample of women.

The Demographic Variables

The stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to observe the effect of demographic variables included in the study. Separate analyses were done for the two samples of women. It was found that only one variable, that is, tenure in the present position was a predictor of life satisfaction, explaining a total of 5% of the variance. This occurred only for the lower group. In the higher group, none of the variables significantly predicted life satisfaction.

The simple reason for these variables not emerging may be that since it was not the primary concern of the study to see the effect of these variables, they were controlled at the initial stages itself. Thus, once again, this provides support for no within-group variances in the samples.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Contents

The Background.	156
Overall Findings.	157
Work and Family Satisfaction.	157
Interrole Satisfaction	164
Life Satisfaction.	167
Comments	169
Limitations	178
Implications	179
Implications for Future Researchers.	179
Implications for Organizational Policy Makers.	181

THE BACKGROUND

The present study was an attempt at examining the concept of "satisfaction" in relation to various work, family, and self-related variables. The study had following objectives: (i) to find out the relationships of work-family characteristics with satisfaction within the respective domains; (ii) to see the secondary relationships of work-family variables with satisfaction outside the domain; (iii) to assess the effect of work-family predictors on interrole and life satisfaction; (iv) to observe the effect of self-related characteristics on the above mentioned relationships; and (v) to assess the importance of occupational status as a moderator across the above relationships.

The study was conducted by employing a survey questionnaire on a sample of 300 married employed women. Based on salary range and status, the sample was split into subsamples--higher group($n = 150$) and lower group($n = 150$). The two subsamples were significantly different from each other in terms of age, income, education, tenure in organization, and number of years married.

Four sets of predictors--work context (climate, influence, and involvement), work content (meaningfulness, variety, and feedback), family context (climate, influence, and involvement), and family content (meaningfulness, autonomy, and feedback)--were identified to have their relationships with work, family, interrole, and life satisfaction. Further, three self-related characteristics--self image, career orientation, and external loci of control (chance and powerful others orientation)--were taken as moderators.

All the measures used were subjected to a varimax rotated factor analysis and only those items which had high factor loadings were retained. Thus, all the scales were factorially independent and generally showed reliability

coefficients well over .50. The factor analysis was repeated for the two samples of women--higher and lower group--separately. The analysis disclosed similar factor structures in terms of loadings and cross-loadings, and eigenvalues and percentages of variance.

Stepwise, hierarchical, and stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses were employed in order to assess the relationships among predictors, criterion, and moderator variables. Below is a summary of overall findings obtained from the study.

OVERALL FINDINGS

The findings are summarized under three heads: work and family satisfaction, interrole satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

Work and Family Satisfaction

Higher Group

Among the set of work content variables, meaningfulness predicted work satisfaction directly, whereas feedback in work was moderated by career orientation, with high career oriented women perceiving a negative relationship between feedback and work satisfaction. As regards work context variables, organizational involvement and climate were found to predict work satisfaction directly and quite strongly. These relationships are summarized in Figure 5.1.

Out of the three family content variables, autonomy explained the largest amount of variance in family satisfaction (Figure 5.1). Feedback also added some amount of variance in family satisfaction. Of the three family context variables, climate was the strongest variable followed by involvement. Influence was moderated by self image, where low self image possessors showed a positive

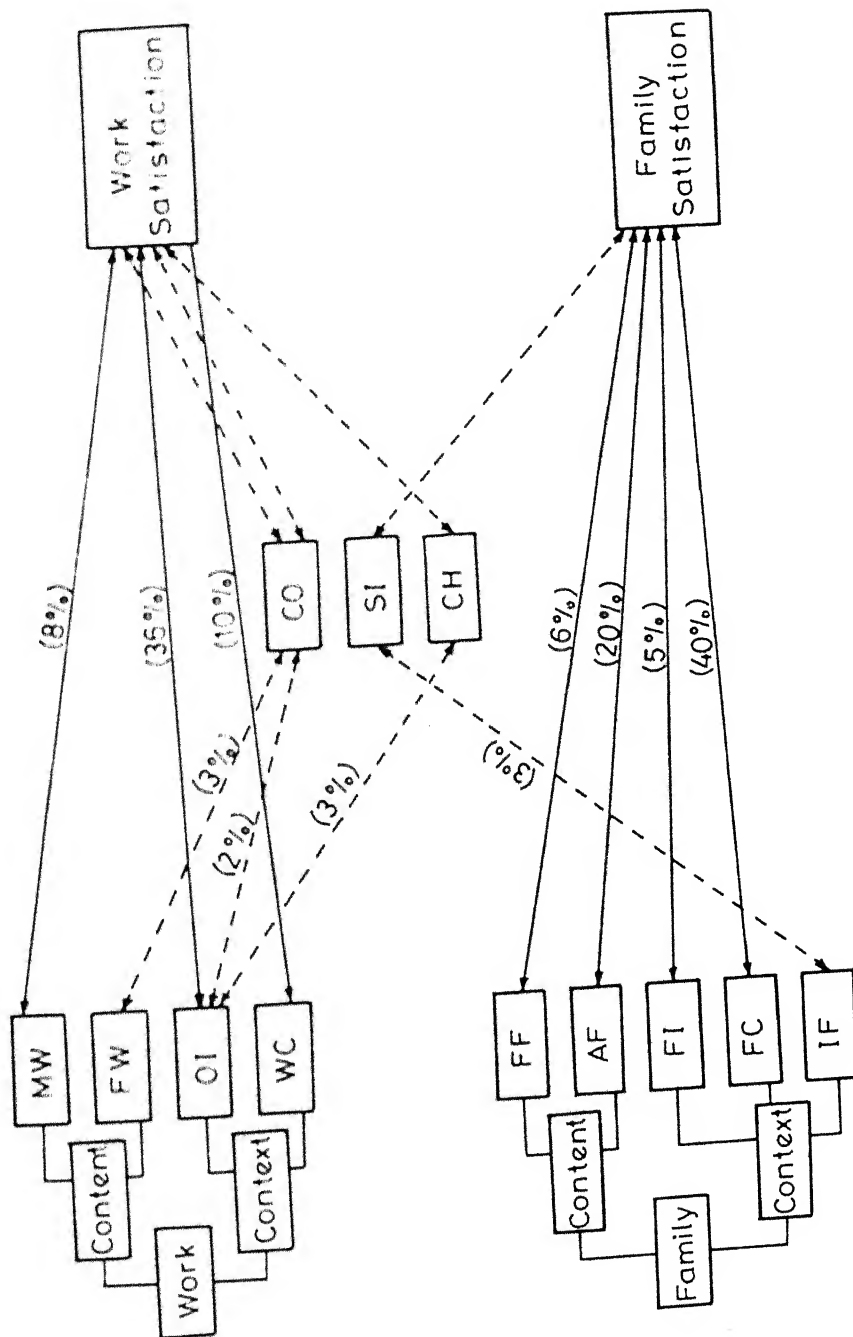


Figure 5.1. A summary of within domain relationships for higher group (solid lines show direct relationships; broken lines show interactive relationships).
Abbreviations: MW= Meaningfulness in work; WC= Work Climate; FF= Feedback in Family; OI= Organizational Involvement; FI=Family Involvement; FC=Family Climate; IF=Influence in Family; CO=Career Orientation; SI= Self Image; CH= Chance.

relationship between influence in family and family satisfaction.

Thus, in comparison to content, context variables emerged as better predictors of both work and family satisfaction, indicating that place and environment of work had more important role than actual job conditions for this sample of women.

To observe the cross-domain effects, all the predictors taken together were regressed on work and family satisfaction. These relationships are summarized in Figure 5.2. The results of this analysis showed that though the within domain effects were greater, some amount of cross-domain variance did exist, with a directionality from family to work. Family content variables predicted work satisfaction more strongly than did family context variables.

Further, work-family aspects were matched over almost all the variables which enabled us to obtain interactive relationships, apart from direct ones in studying work-family relationships. The match of influence and involvement in work-family domains emerged as a salient predictor of both work and family satisfaction. High influence in work and family accounted for high work satisfaction. However, high influence in family with low influence in work predicted high family satisfaction. It provided further indication of family to work cross-domain effect. None of the content variables interacted in explaining work or family satisfaction.

Lower Group

Relationships of lower group women are summarized in Figure 5.3. The only work content variable which emerged as a predictor of work satisfaction was meaningfulness. Among the three work context variables, involvement and climate were found to be significantly and positively accounting for work satisfaction. No interactive relationship was found in the work domain.

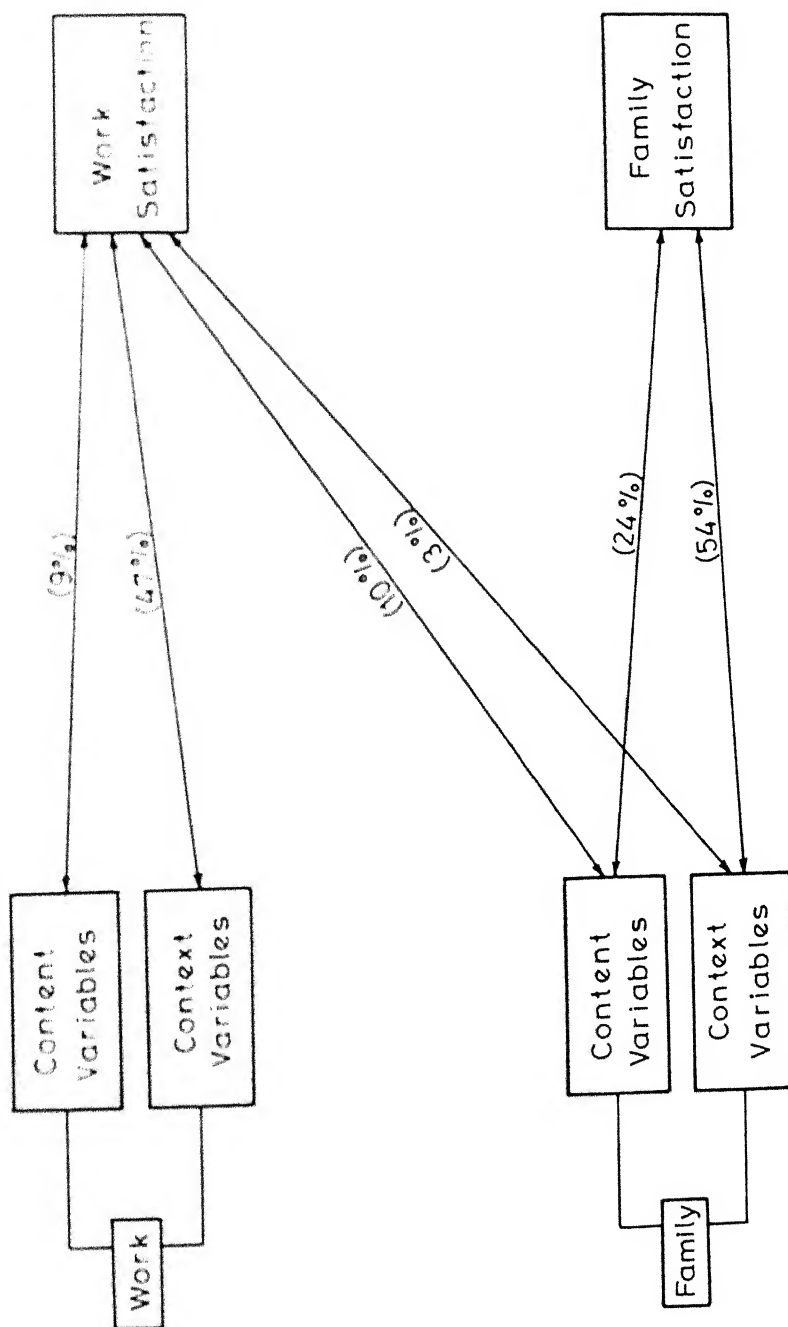


Figure 52. A summary of within and cross-domain relationships for higher group.

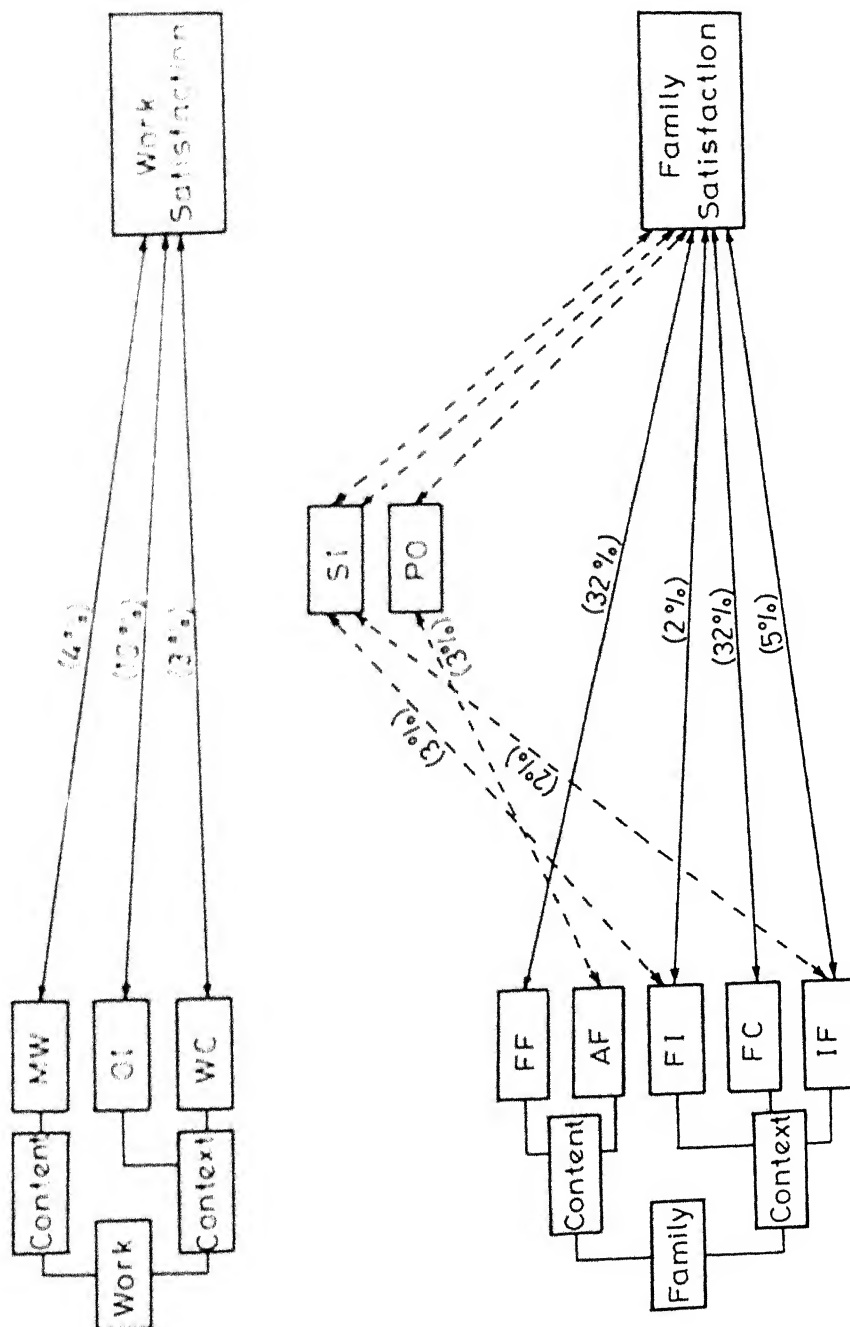


Figure 5.3. A summary of within domain relationships for lower group (solid lines show direct relationships; broken lines show interactive relationships) Abbreviations: PO = Powerful Others; see Figure 5.1 for other abbreviations.

Regarding family content variables, feedback accounted for the largest amount of variance in family satisfaction. Autonomy interacted with powerful others locus of control, suggesting that autonomy related positively to satisfaction only for those having a high powerful others orientation. Among the family context variables, climate appeared to be a strong predictor of family satisfaction. Also, those having high self image were found to perceive a positive linkage between influence and family satisfaction, and between involvement and family satisfaction.

Apart from within domain relationships, the cross-domain effects were also examined. These relationships are presented in Figure 5.4. Although the within domain relationships were stronger, outside domain effects existed too. As with the higher group, this group also showed a direction of relationship from family to work. However, here, family context variables predicted work satisfaction more strongly than did family content variables. A very small but significant percentage of variance was also explained by work context variables in predicting family satisfaction.

As regards interactive relationships, all the three context variables matched in terms of two domains and predicted family satisfaction. The interaction of work and family climate also predicted work satisfaction. None of the content variables interacted in explaining work or family satisfaction.

Overall findings for work and family satisfaction received little support for the moderating hypothesis. The two groups showed similarity in the direction of relationship in cross-domain relationships. However, the difference existed in terms of the importance of content and context variables. Few aspects (involvement, climate, and meaningfulness in work domain; climate and influence in family domain) predicted within domain satisfaction for both the groups. Though the two groups did differ in the strength of predictive values, autonomy for the higher group, whereas feedback for the lower group were more important.

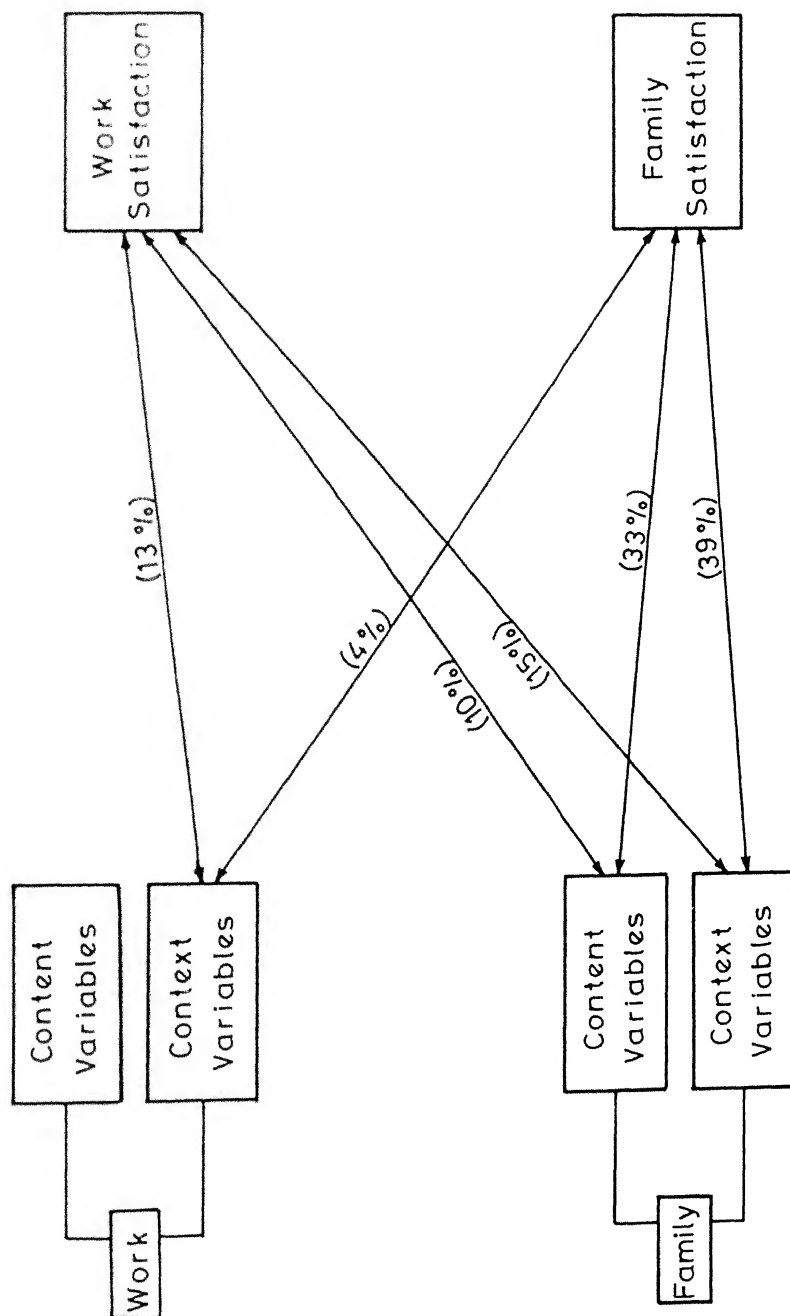


Figure 5.4. A summary of within and cross-domain relationships for lower group.

Interrole Satisfaction

Higher Group

Figure 5.5 provides a summary of findings for this group of women. Of all the four sets of variables, content variables of family (i.e., variables related to family work) were the strongest predictor of interrole satisfaction. However, these relationships were moderated by self image. This satisfaction was related positively with autonomy and meaningfulness in family for those women who had high self image.

Meaningfulness in work directly related to interrole satisfaction among the work content variables. Climate in work and family interacted significantly with self image in predicting interrole satisfaction. However, the difference existed in the patterns of relationship in the sense that a less favorable climate in work but a highly favorable climate in family predicted interrole satisfaction for high self image possessors. Other interactive relationships regarding family variables occurred between meaningfulness and autonomy. The former was moderated by self image and the latter was moderated by self image and powerful others orientation. Those having high self image perceived a negative relationship of meaningfulness and a positive relationship of autonomy with interrole satisfaction.

Lower Group

The findings for the lower group are summarized in Figure 5.6. It is clear that almost all the relationships were interactive in nature. Secondly, none of the content variables in this group accounted for a significant variance in interrole satisfaction.

Influence and involvement in both work and family domains were moderated by self image. In the work domain, high self image possessors perceived positive

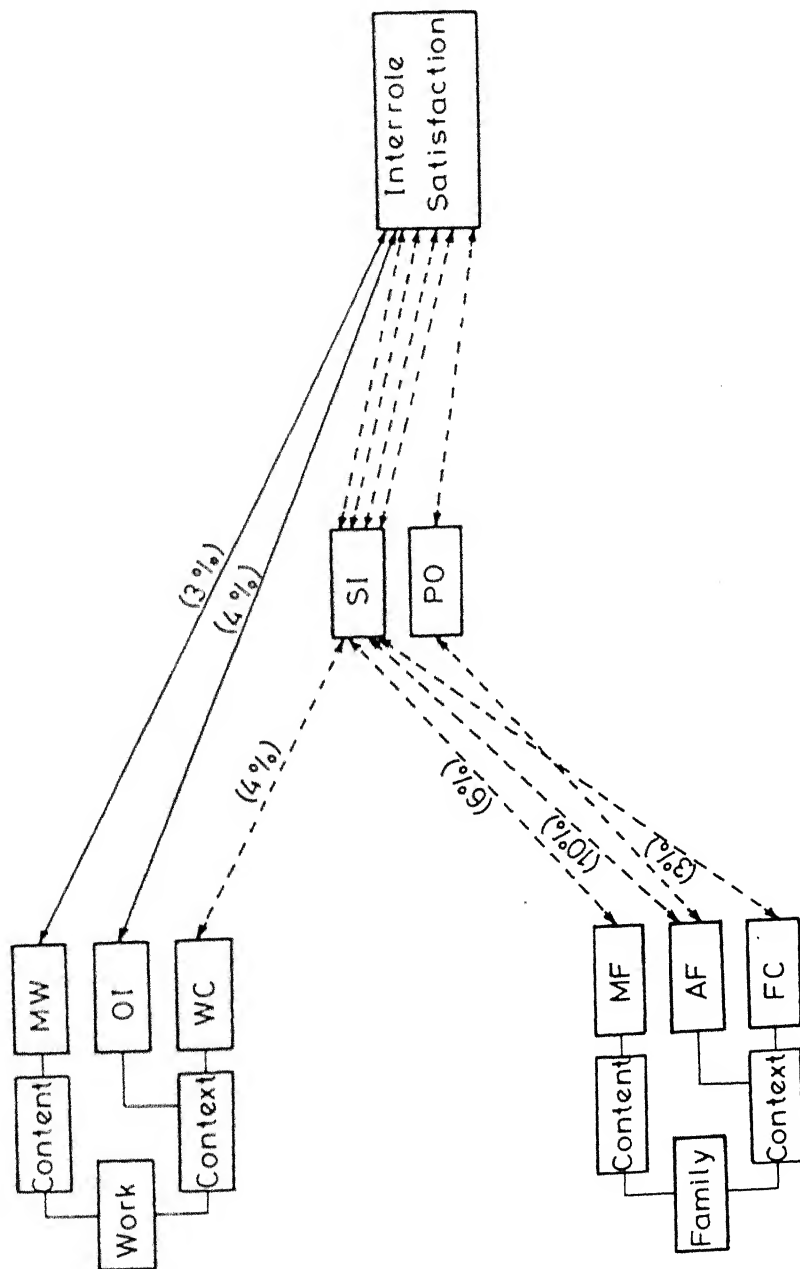


Figure 5.5. A summary of work family predictors and interrole satisfaction relationships for higher group (solid lines show direct relationships; broken lines show interactive relationships). Abbreviations: MF = Meaningfulness in Family; see Figures 5.1 and 5.3 for other abbreviations.

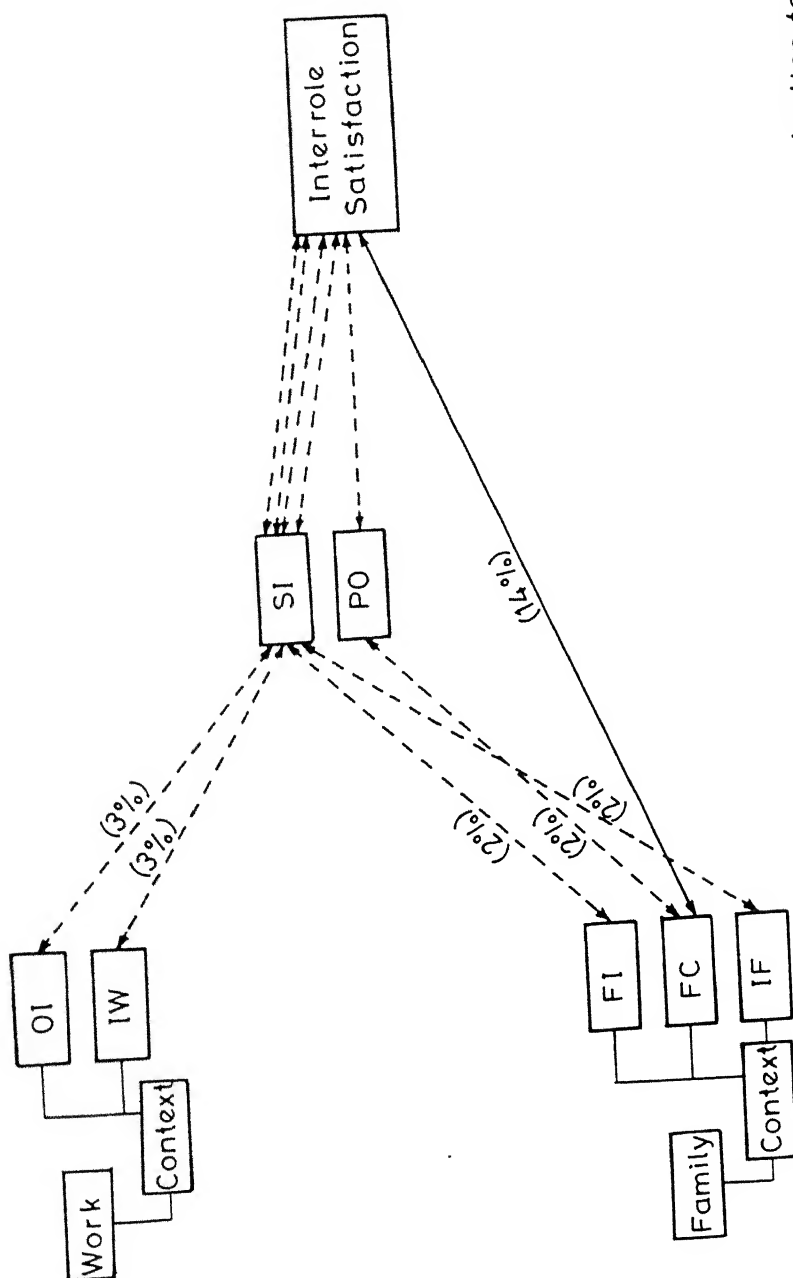


Figure 5.6. A summary of work family predictors and interrole satisfaction for lower group (solid lines show direct relationships, broken lines show interactive relationships) Abbreviations: IW = Influence in work; see Figures 5.1 and 5.3 for other abbreviations.

relationships between predictors and criterion; but in the family domain, the direction of this relationship was negative. Apart from these variables, family climate was moderated by powerful others locus of control. A high favorable climate had a positive association with interrole satisfaction only for those women who had high powerful others orientation.

A quick glance at the findings would reveal that a seemingly different pattern existed in the way predictors influenced the criterion. Whereas both content and context variables contributed in the case of higher group, only context dimensions predicted interrole satisfaction in the case of lower group. Self image emerged as a very potent moderator, irrespective of hierarchical levels.

Life Satisfaction

Higher Group

Figure 5.7 shows a summary of findings concerning life satisfaction for the higher group. All the three work content variables predicted life satisfaction directly. However, feedback and variety were moderated by career orientation and self image, respectively, apart from having a direct impact on life satisfaction. High career oriented women perceived a negative correlation between feedback and life satisfaction. Further, high self image women perceived a negative relationship between variety and life satisfaction. Regarding work context variables, climate and involvement explained a large proportion of variance in life satisfaction.

Among the family content variables, autonomy accounted for a significant amount of variance in life satisfaction directly, whereas feedback was moderated by career orientation showing a negative relationship between the criterion and the predictor for those who had high career orientation. As regards context

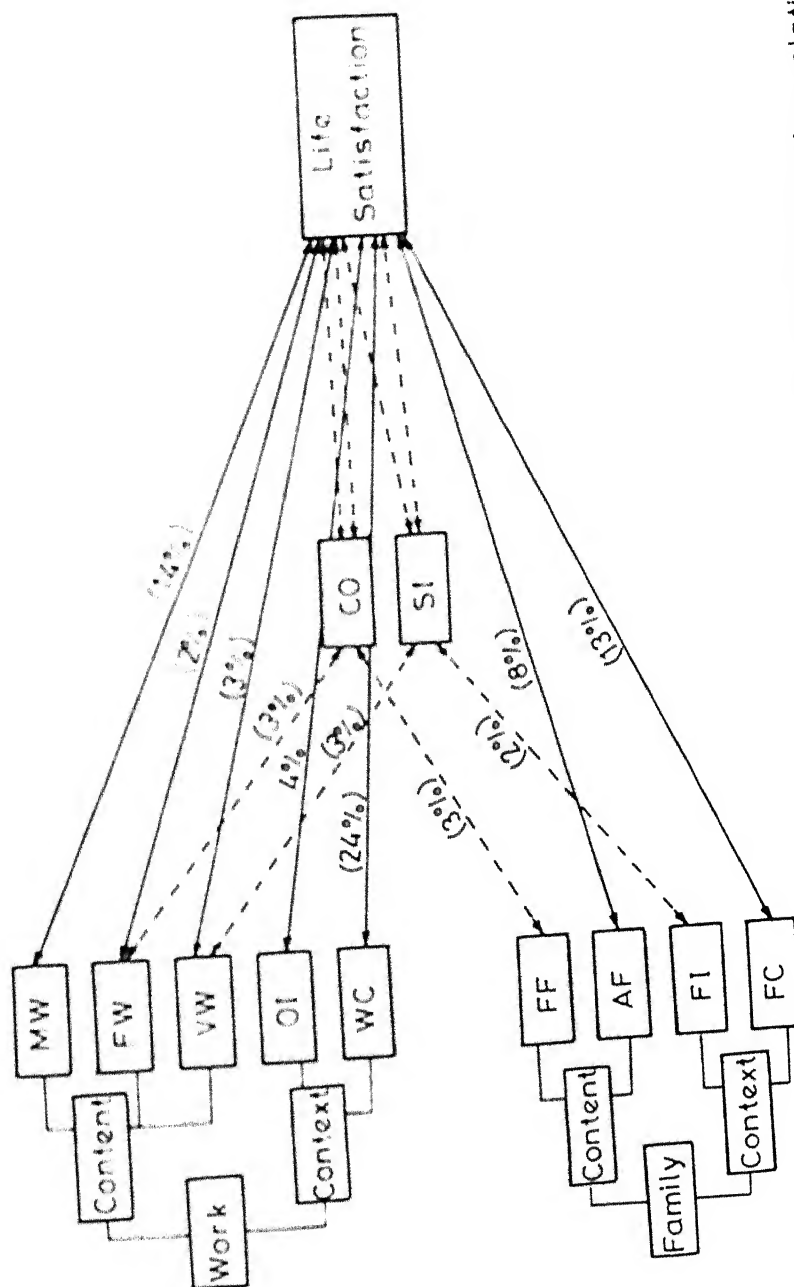


Figure 5.7. A summary of work family predictors and life satisfaction relationships for higher group (solid lines show direct relationships; broken lines show interactive relationships). Abbreviations: VW = Variety in work; see Figure 5.1 for other abbreviations.

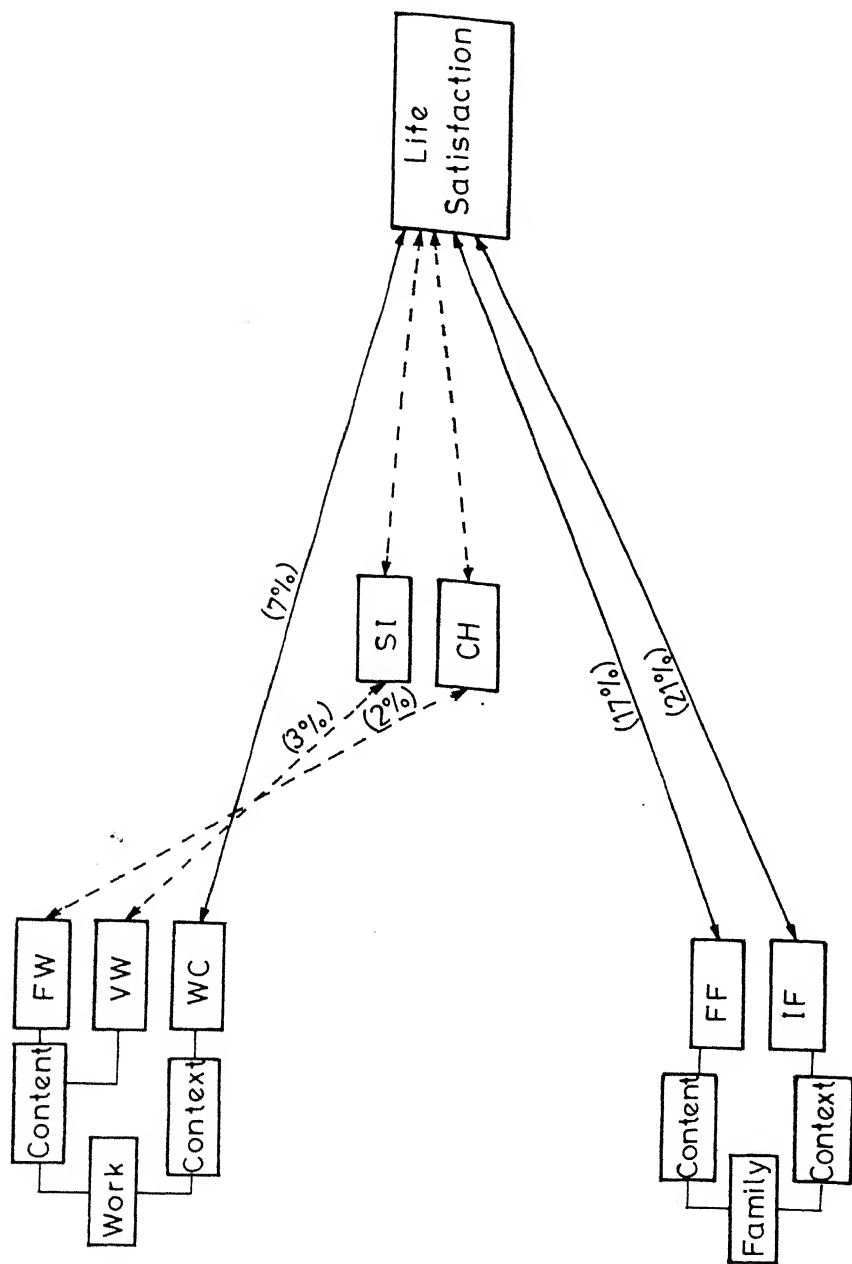


Figure 5.8. A summary of work family predictors and life satisfaction relationships for lower group (solid lines show direct relationships; broken lines show interactive relationships). See Figures 5.1 and 5.7 for abbreviations.

(1) The first aim was to see the relationship of work variables with work satisfaction, and family variables with family satisfaction. The results show that these criterion variables are predicted, to a considerable extent, by these variables. However, the context (climate, influence, and involvement) appears to be a better predictor of satisfaction with work and with family. The pattern is similar for both the samples. Thus, the characteristics of the environment in which the person works exert more influence than the work characteristics. The more the environment is perceived favorable in terms of the fulfillment of expectations, the greater is the amount of satisfaction experienced (Friedlander & Margulies, 1969; Lazarus, 1966; Schneider & Hall, 1973; Voydanoff, 1988a,b).

Influence or perceived control in marital relationship has emerged as a crucial factor in determining satisfaction for both the groups of women. However, it is not a source of satisfaction in the work setting. The reason could be that, probably in the work setting, influence is associated with aspects like career success, obtaining the opportunities to advance further, etc. Huston (1983) maintains that power or influence is "the ability to achieve ends through influence" (p. 170). As regards influence in the family, Madden (1987) maintains that moderate control over events contributes to contentment in marriage and family life.

Involvement is an emotional response which directs people to develop a deep sense of belongingness. In the present context, the workplace in which a woman is working and the family of which she is a member enforce certain values, attitudes, and beliefs on her which she accepts because she is emotionally involved and committed to her workplace and family. It drives her to derive a personal meaning from her workplace because of similarity of goals (Buchanan, 1974; Etzioni, 1975; Hall et al., 1970; Romzek, 1989).

As to content variables, though variety, meaningfulness, autonomy, and feedback contribute to internal satisfaction, the extent of influence and amount of satisfaction probably varies alongwith the gender of the person. However, the present study does not test this assumption, since no sample of men was employed. The content dimensions either are moderated by self variables showing a negative relationship with the criterion, or have not emerged at all. This may be essentially true in the case of women. High degree of variety, challenge, significance, etc. in work demand extra effort and commitment from employees so that they can be maintained and can be a source of satisfaction. However, a woman in full-time homemaking role alongwith employee role cannot afford to give that much amount of time at the job because it is not consistent with her self image of a successful dual worker. Further, job characteristics-satisfaction relationship is moderated by growth needs (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Probably, including this as a moderator would have provided better results.

Feedback and autonomy in family have occurred as salient factors more often, irrespective of the hierarchical level, though the pattern of relationships is different. Meaningfulness did not occur probably because housework, for the lower level women, is more of a responsibility than a career which women have to bear. Moreover, women at higher jobs, being economically more well-off, generally hire outside help and thus do not perceive satisfaction-meaningfulness relationship. Thus, no significant meaning generally is attached to house work and, which is why, it is not a source of satisfaction.

(2) The second aim of the study was to see the effects across the domains. The results provide support to the hypothesis. Besides, it showed a very clear direction of relationship, i.e., from family to work. In both the samples, both context and content family variables predicted work satisfaction. However, it is noticeable that family context variables related to work

satisfaction more strongly for the lower group than for the higher group. Further, the strength of relationship of content variables with work satisfaction is equal for both the subgroups. This pattern of results suggests that, compared with women at lower jobs, women at higher jobs perceive little spillover from family to work domain in terms of contextual characteristics. In the former case, the favorable attitudes and atmosphere in family get spilled over in the other domain (i.e., work) as well, and accounts for satisfaction. These findings are in line with those of Evans and Bartolome (1984), Payton-Miyazaki and Brayfield (1976), Piotrkowski (1978, 1979), and others, who also have reported a spillover effect from family to work domain.

Crouter (1984b) has suggested that positive spillover can be of two kinds: the educational spillover (in which a person learns skills, aptitudes, etc. in one sphere and applies them elsewhere) and the psychological spillover (in which the emotional states experienced in one sphere get transferred into the other domains of life). The findings regarding work satisfaction suggest that positive emotional states and experiences from one's family environment are more important than the characteristics of the task for women at lower jobs. However, for the women at higher jobs, the content or intrinsic variables explain greater variance in comparison to context variables. Thus, both the groups showed psychological spillover from family to work, but differed in terms of priority of extrinsic or intrinsic characteristics of family in predicting work satisfaction. Crouter's concept of psychological spillover seems to be fitting here. According to this, positive experiences and perceptions regarding family environment (context) and characteristic features of family work itself (content) predict not only family satisfaction, but also work satisfaction.

Several factors may be cited which together have an impact upon workers' family influences on work life. Sex role attitudes appear to be a very important in this regard. The attitudes of society by and large put social

pressure on women to accept family demands and responsibilities as their primary role. Thus, women experience spillover quite often from family to work in negative forms (e.g., absenteeism, lack of involvement, and commitment) and also in positive forms (e.g., in terms of support from family).

The second aspect is the socialization pattern of women during their childhood. This includes sex-role stereotyping, male-female interaction patterns, and societal norms. Socialization is considered often a barrier to women in the workplace because it creates confusion about proper behavior and roles. Therefore, married women working outside home lack a role model for themselves. The women who have their mothers as their role models and generally come from the upper socio-economic status group are thus expected to have more egalitarian sex-role attitudes. These women are also less likely to face work/family incompatibility and, hence, a positive spillover from family to work may be expected.

One more related aspect is the attitudes of the husband towards the wife. Compatibility of husband and wife's sex-role attitudes would lead to a better marital adjustment and more harmony in life. These positive experiences at home might seep in one's work life also and enhance one's work satisfaction.

Another factor which is cited by Crouter (1984b) is the life cycle stages of women. The negativity of spillover from family to work decreases as the life cycle increases. At earlier stages, women have to bear more responsibilities at home because children are small (Steers & Rhodes, 1978). In the later stages of life, the negativity decreases and the positivity increases. Though negative spillover is not found in the present study because all the relationships were positive, the smaller values for family-to-work spillover could be due to the present sample consisting of women having adolescent children.

Thus, the aforementioned analyses of results require a more developmental and longitudinal perspective in order to grasp the essence of

family-to-work spillover in a more specific way. Further, the knowledge of the contribution of each variable in this process would generate more interesting and valuable results.

(3) The third aim of the study was to evaluate the effect of work-family variables on interrole and life satisfaction. Almost all the relationships pertaining to interrole satisfaction were moderated by self image of the person (as a dual worker). Further, family context variables were the best predictors of interrole satisfaction. This implies that family is prior to any other domain of life for Indian working women.

Once again sex-role socialization proposition can be given here to explain the obtained results. According to this, women bear primary responsibility of being a homemaker and most of them are psychologically prepared for this. The earner role is an additional responsibility to their primary role of a homemaker. Therefore, most of their experiences (good or bad) relate more to family than to work. This proposition may obtain substantial support if gender differences in interrole satisfaction are considered.

Further, one more explanation based on life cycle stages may be given in this regard. Since family demands are greater, women tend to place more importance to family role. The paradigm shift or identity crisis takes place in women in later life stages when children are grown up and family life is relatively more stable. However, this assumption is not accepted in the present context because age of the respondent has not been able to predict interrole satisfaction.

Regarding life satisfaction, both work-family predictors were found to be salient. However, relationships occurred relatively more in number and strength in the case of higher group women. Climate of work and family seems to be the most salient variable for the higher group. Since this variable has predicted other criterion variables as well (work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and

interrole satisfaction), it seems appropriate to say that favorable environment and situations at work and home enable the women of higher group to experience greater satisfaction. Other such variables for this group were meaningfulness of work and autonomy in family.

Very few relationships occurred in the case of low group. The reason could be that more basic and extrinsic aspects of work and family determine the level of satisfaction for this group. This may include pay, security, promotion in the case of work, and husband's income, support obtained at home, etc. in the case of family. According to Maslow's theoretical assumption, these are the people engaged in satisfying their basic needs. However, this justification cannot be made loudly because these extrinsic aspects were not studied here in relation to satisfaction. Women at higher jobs are slightly ahead, attempting to derive a meaning in their lives and experiencing satisfaction this way. This may have important implications for policy makers.

(4) The fourth aim of the present study was to study the effect of moderators in an interactional framework on all the criterion variables. In this regard, apart from few interactive relationships, mostly the moderating hypothesis did not receive substantial support for the within domain relationships. However, the maximum interactive relationships were obtained in predicting interrole satisfaction in both the samples. Self image emerged as the most crucial moderator. It is interesting to note that climate (in both the domains) and interrole satisfaction relationship was moderated by self image in the higher group. The similar was the case with influence and involvement in the lower group.

Thus, a person's attitudes towards himself/herself determine the perception of work and nonwork to a great extent. This finding provides support to Korman's (1970) self consistency theory which suggests that, other things being equal, high self-esteem persons are motivated to perform well in

order to maintain their self image of competence. Further, low self esteem persons perform poorly and are happy with that because it is consistent with their self image of incompetence. According to this explanation, women having self image of a well-accommodated dual worker would perceive a positive relationship between job/family characteristics and interrole satisfaction because it is consistent with their positive self image about themselves. Additional support for this kind of relationship has been reported by Brook, (1991), Mitchell, (1979), and others.

As in the case of interrole satisfaction, interactive relationships were clearer for the higher group in life satisfaction also than for the lower group. Feedback in work and family was moderated by one's career orientation to predict life satisfaction. Thus, women who attach high level of salience to work were happy when they obtained feedback from work as well as family. In addition, self image showed few relationships for both the groups in predicting life satisfaction.

(5) The final aim of the study was to observe similarities and differences in the pattern of relationships due to occupational status. In most cases, as mentioned above, the effect of this categorical variable was obvious. Both kinds of differences were found, i.e., in the pattern of relationships and in the strength of prediction. These findings are in line with Centers (1948), Centers and Bugental (1966), Gurin, Veroff, and Feld (1960), Jurgenson (1941), and Others. It seems that different motives operate at different occupational levels which motivate an individual to work accordingly in order to derive satisfaction. Maslow's (1954) and Alderfer's (1969) need theories also explain this phenomenon. Basic needs are the first to get fulfilled and give way to other higher order needs. It may be assumed that women at lower levels have more basic level needs, whereas those at higher jobs come from better socio-economic status and thus have crossed those stages of basic needs. They

strive for higher order needs to make themselves satisfied. The incorporation of needs and expectancies in the studies would have provided much deeper understanding of the role of occupational status.

LIMITATIONS

As with any social science research, this study also is not free from potential limitations. The first limitation may be attributed to the methodology employed. The results of the present study are based on a cross-sectional survey research. In order to capture the essence of satisfaction with various aspects of life, the relationship of work and family in terms of satisfaction should be studied by using supplementary methods such as experiments, quasi-experiments, or interviews. Further, the research can be strengthened by conducting longitudinal studies since life cycle stages are considered important in determining various affective responses for women.

Another limitation of the study is that the study does not include a control sample of males. In the absence of comparable data, it is difficult to establish that these particular relationships exist exclusively for women. As pointed out by Lambert (1990) also, the information about gender role socialization would have supplied us with a comparative analysis of work-family, interrole, and life satisfaction.

Thirdly, work and family measures employed in the study were similar. Therefore, the possibility of method variance cannot be denied. However, to overcome this limitation, similar measures were placed quite distantly at the time of preparing the questionnaire, thus providing some assurance against the problem of method variance. Also, the order of items within the scales was randomly arranged.

Lastly, it would be a gross oversimplification to assume that these were all the variables relevant to the prediction of satisfaction. A great caution should

be taken specially when interpreting interactive relationships in this regard. Future research may probably employ other useful aspects to detect unexplained variances in the prediction of satisfaction.

IMPLICATIONS

The study of satisfaction has direct and important implications, since it is one of the major life goals. Below are given some of the implications for future researchers as well as for organization and family policy makers.

Implications for Future Researchers

The limitations mentioned earlier, in fact, put forth various research questions and openings to be explored by future researchers. However, some of these specific issues may be listed as below.

Whatever theoretical frameworks are available to date, they attempt to explain the process of how work and family antecedent and consequent aspects relate to each other across the domain. No theory talks about contents or structures which show cross-domain effect, i.e., what is it that gets transferred, segmented, or compensated. Researchers should attempt to answer this question, and give content theories of work-family relationships. One suggestion which can be made based on the present data is that at least two kinds of variables might show cross-domain relationships. These are role related or content variables and work place related or context variables.

Expanding the conceptualization of work-family linkages in terms of satisfaction from work and other domains of life, and to include topics such as occupational sex segregation, one-parent families, the structure of occupation, and earnings can be but few of the several implications for future researchers.

Moreover, it would be a fruitful idea to extend this topic to rural women and urban self-employed women who are full-time homemakers also.

The incorporation of gender related issues, earning gaps between men and women, type of family structure (nuclear vs joint), attitudes of husbands towards wives' working would have been beneficial, especially for Indian conditions.

The processes described to understand work-family relationships have received little support empirically. Still lacking is the systematic understanding of those individual and societal functions which may be served by these processes, and personal and societal conditions under which one or another form is more likely to occur. Once a theoretical base is fully developed to clarify the nature of these adjustment processes, a better knowledge of the effects of these processes may be established on other areas of life.

Moreover, quite recently, researchers have started including other nonwork domains, especially family, while studying organizational behavior. This issue takes more value because more and more women are entering into workforce. Thus, researchers must look beyond their self fulfilling prophecies to fill in the details of the structure and meaning family members give to work from both organizational and family points of view. The challenge for future researchers is to clarify the benefits and costs involved in employment, housework, and childcare responsibilities that influence and are influenced by family outcomes. One more important aspect here is that family should also be considered an organization and, therefore, those characteristics that exist in the family as well as in the work domain should be objectively identified. This will help in providing more effective coping strategies for women in work and full family life.

Finally, as discussed by Rice et al. (1980) is the issue of individual differences causing variations in the relationship of work and nonwork. In the present study, the effect of self image, locus of control, and career orientation

was studied. However, differences in needs, values, interests, and perceptions are some of the proposed aspects of individual's personality which might be expected to cause variations.

Implications for Organizational Policy Makers

Empirical findings and common sense observations suggest that the study of satisfaction may have several pragmatic implications for employees in the work organization and for organization itself. The reason for this is that the interdependence of work and family has a significant impact upon individual's behavior in organizational settings and, consequently, on organizational functioning itself. Particularly for working women, family responsibilities affect their willingness to work long hours, accept greater job responsibilities, travel extensively, and seek promotions. The increasing representation of two-career couples has posed a challenge to organizations to manage a generation of employees who are concerned about balancing their work and nonwork lives.

As the present findings suggest, jobs having autonomy, significance, and identity lead to work satisfaction. Thus, attempts should be made to structure jobs in such a way that an optimal degree of these characteristics is present. Further, as climate has emerged as the most important predictor of satisfaction (with family, work, interrole, and life), irrespective (generally) of one's occupational status, favorable climate in both the domains (i.e., work and family) should be attempted to generate. Favorable climate refers to the organization which is structured, encourages participation of its employees, and provides warmth and support so that employee satisfaction can be raised. The favorable climate also includes less wage gap, exclusion of gender role stereotypes, and workplace discrimination for women employees, direct communication, more on- and off-the-job interactions among the employees, that might lead to a healthy and productive environment in favor of both organization

and individuals.

In the domain of family also, family policy makers and welfare organizations should realize that the environment/and climate is the most important variable, favorability of which increases satisfaction directly. Though a major societal change is required to bring about changes in the structure of the families, we can expect some changes in attitudes through employees counseling at work and at home and training programs regarding effective coping strategies for both men and women. The dual career family pattern has brought significant changes in the role of women. But the effectiveness of these family structures can be successful only when roles of men are also changed, and they also move towards having an egalitarian life style.

Favorable and supportive climate, feedback, and autonomy in home are also important from the point of work-family interface. As has been found, family variables not only determine family satisfaction, but also work satisfaction, it is useful to adopt such family oriented personnel policies by which the negative effects of family to work can be minimized and positive spillover may be enhanced. Some of these strategies employed by organizations in modern societies are to provide childcare during work hours, flexible work schedules, work-at-home, flexible benefits and transfers, employees counseling, and relocation assistance. Although these policies can undoubtedly be useful in balancing the two roles effectively by working women, organizations must also consider about some possible fundamental changes in their structure, reward system, and work culture to be truly solving the contemporary work-family issues.

Organizations also need to recognize that family responsibilities vary with employee's career and life stages. Early stages of life are more crucial from the perspective of career development and are more demanding also, as far as personal responsibility is concerned. Thus, more flexibility and adjusting

environment is needed in work schedules for women during earlier life stages.

Besides, personal characteristics play a very important role in determining satisfaction and work-family predictors. A woman's perception about herself, her needs, interests, and aptitudes should be considered at the time of assigning a role to the employee in an organization.

These were some of the essential suggestions made for future researchers and for policy makers in organizations. Since the work population consists of women in a relatively large number, extensive research is required (i) to develop and test theoretical models of work-family interactions and overall life satisfaction and (ii) to evaluate and practice the effectiveness of a variety of organizational intervention from multiple perspectives.

References

- Abdel-Halim, A.A. (1979). Individual and interpersonal moderators of employee reactions to job characteristics: A reexamination. Personnel Psychology, 32, 121-137.
- Aberle, D., & Naegele, K. (1952). Middle-class fathers' occupational role and attitudes toward children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 22, 366-378.
- Adams, J.S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 2, 267-299.
- Alderfer, C.P. (1969). An empirical test of a new theory of human needs. organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4, 142-175.
- Aldous, J. (1969). Occupational characteristics and males' role performance in the family. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 31, 702-712.
- Andrews, F.M., & Withey, S.B. (1976). Social indicators of well-being in America: The development and measurement of perceptual indicators. New York: Plenum.
- Ansari, M.A. (1990). Managing people at work. New Delhi: Sage.
- Armstrong, T.B. (1971). Job content and context factors related to satisfaction for different occupational levels. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, 57-65.
- Arnold, H.J. (1982). Moderator variables: A classification of conceptual, analytic and psychometric issues. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 29, 143-174.
- Arnold, H.J., & House, R.J. (1980). Methodological and substantive extensions of the job characteristics model of motivation. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 25, 161-183.

- Bailyn, L. (1970). Career and family orientation of husbands and wives in relation to marital happiness. Human Relations, 23, 97-113.
- Bailyn, L. (1978). Accommodation of work to family. In R. Rapoport & R. Rapoport (Eds.), Working Couples (pp.159-174). New York: Harper & Row.
- Barnett, R., & Baruch, G. (1987). Determinants of fathers' participation in family work. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49, 29-40.
- Baron, A.S. (1987). Working partners: Career-committed mothers and their husbands. Business Horizons, 30, 45-50.
- Bartolome, F., & Evans, P.H. (1979). Professional lives versus private lives-shifting patterns of managerial commitment. Organizational Dynamics, 7, 2-29.
- Bean, F.D., Curtis, R.L., & Marcum, J.P. (1977). Familism and marital satisfaction among Mexican Americans: The effects of family size, wife's labor force participation and conjugal power. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 39, 759-767.
- Belsky, J., Perry-Jenkins, M., & Crouter, A. (1985). The work-family interface and marital change across the transition to parenthood. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 205-220.
- Bhagat, R., McQuaid, S., Lindholm, E., & Segovis, J. (1985). Total life stress: A multimethod validation of the construct and its effects on organizationally valued outcomes and withdrawal behaviors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 202-214.
- Blood, R.O. (1965). Long range causes and consequences of the employment of married women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 23, 43-47.
- Blood, R.O., & Wolfe, D.M. (1960). Husbands and wives: The dynamics of married living. Glencoe, IL: Free.
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Crouter, A. (1982). Work and family through time and space. In S.B. Kamerman & C.D. Hayes (Eds.). Families that work: Children in a changing world (pp. 39-83). Washington, D.C.: Natinal Academy.

- Brook, J.A. (1991). The link between self-esteem and work/nonwork perceptions and attitudes. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 40, 269-280.
- Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 19, 533-546.
- Burke, R.J. (1986). Occupational and life stress and the family: conceptual frameworks and research findings. Applied Psychology: An international Review, 35, 347-369.
- Burke, R.J., & Bradshaw, P. (1981). Occupational and life stressors and the family. Small Group Behavior, 12, 329-375.
- Burke, R.J., & Greenglass, E.R. (1987). Work and family. Chichester, England: Wiley.
- Burke, R.J., & Weir, J. (1981). Impact of occupational demands on non-work experiences. Group and Organization Studies, 6, 472-485.
- Burke, R.J., Weir, T., & DuWors, R.F. (1980). Work demands on administrators and spouse well-being. Human Relations, 33, 253-278.
- Combs, L.G., & Axelson, L.J. (1978). The family and work: Study of social influences on the dual role attitudes of working women. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Family Relations, Philadelphia, PA.
- Compbell, A., Converse, P.E., & Rodgers, W. (1976). The quality of American life: Perceptons, evaluations, and satisfaction. New York: Russell Sage Foundations.
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., & Weick, K.E. (1970). Managerial behavior, performance, and effectieness, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Centers, R., & Bugental, D.E. (1966). Intrinsic and extrinsic job motivators among different segments of the working population. Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, 193-197.

- Champoux, J.E. (1978). Perceptions of work and non-work: A reexamination of the compensatory and spillover models. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 5, 402-422.
- Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cooke, R.A., & Rousseau, D.M. (1984). Stress and strain from family roles and work role expectations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 252-260.
- Corrales, R.G. (1975). Power and satisfaction in early marriage. In R.E. Cromwell & D.H. Olson (Eds.), Power in families. (pp. 197-216). New York: Wiley.
- Crosby, F. (1984). Job satisfaction and domestic life. In M.D. Lee & R.N. Kanungo (Eds.), Management of work and personal life (pp. 41-60). New York: Praeger.
- Crouter, A. (1984a). Participative work as an influence on human development. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 5, 71-90.
- Crouter, A. (1984b). Spillover from family to work: The neglected side of the work-family interface. Human Relations, 37, 425-552.
- Dailey, R.C. (1980). Relationships between locus of control, task characteristics and work attitudes. Psychological Reports, 47, 855-861.
- D'Arcy, C., Syrotink, J., & Siddique, C.M. (1984). Perceived job attributes, job satisfaction, and psychological distress: A comparison of working men and women. Human Relations, 37, 603-611.
- Dawns, A. (1967). Inside bureaucracy. Boston, MA: Little-Brown.
- Dubin, R. (1956). Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the central life interests of industrial workers. Social Problems, 3, 131-142.
- Dubin, R. (1967). Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the central life interests of industrial workers. In E. Smigel (Ed.), Work and leisure (pp. 143-174). New Haven: College and University Press.

- Dubin, R., & Champoux, J.E. (1977). Central life interests and job satisfaction. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 18, 366-377.
- Dunham, R.B., Aldog, R.J., & Brief, A.P. (1977). Dimensionality of task design as measured by the Jobs Diagnostic Survey. Academy of Management Journal, 20, 209-223.
- Dyer, W. (1964). Family reactions to the father's job. In A. Shostak & W. Gomberg (Eds.), Blue-collar world (pp. 86-91). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Evans, P., & Bartolome, F. (1984). The changing pictures of the relationship between career and family. Journal of Occupational Behavior, 5, 9-21.
- Evans, M.G., Kiggundu, M.N., & House, R.J. (1979). A partial test and extension of the job characteristic model of motivation. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24, 354-381.
- Etzioni, A. (1975). A comparative analysis of complex organizations. New York: Free.
- Falbo, T. (1977). Multidimensional scaling of power strategies. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 537-547.
- Ferree, M.M. (1976). Working class jobs: House work and paid work as sources of satisfaction. Journal of Social Problems, 23, 431-441.
- Fried, Y., & Ferris, G.R. (1986). The dimensionality of job characteristics: Some neglected issues. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 419-426.
- Friedlander, F., & Margulies, N. (1969). Multiple inputs of organizational climate and individual value systems upon job satisfaction. Personnel Psychology, 22, 171-183.
- Gaines, J., & Jermier, J.M. (1983). Emotional exhaustion in a high stress organization. Academy of Management Journal, 26, 567-586.
- Ganster, D.C. (1980). Individual differences and task design: A laboratory experiment. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 26, 131-148.

- Gottlieb, D. (1974). Youth and the meaning of work. Manpower Research Monograph, No. 32. Washington: U.S. Department of Labor.
- Greenhaus, J.H. (1987). Career management. Hinsdale, IL: Dryden.
- Greenhaus, J.H., & Badin, I.J. (1974). Self-esteem, performance, and satisfaction: Some tests of a theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, 722-726.
- Greenhaus, J.H., & Beutell, N.J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family jobs. Academy of Management Review, 10, 76-88.
- Greenhaus, J.H., & Parasuraman, S. (1986). A work-nonwork interactive perspective of stress and its consequences. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 8, 37-60.
- Gupta, G.R., & Ganguli, H.C. (1982). Marriage-work interaction: A study on Indian Women. Indian Journal of Clinical Psychology, 9, 113-123.
- Gurin, G., Veroff, J., & Feld, S. (1960). Americans view their mental health. New York: Basic.
- Haavio-Mannila, E., (1971). Satisfaction with family, work, leisure, and life among men and women. Human Relations, 24, 585-601.
- Hackman, J.R., & Lawler, E.E. (1971). Employee reactions to job characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, 259-286.
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 159-170.
- Hall, D.T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H.T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. Administrative Science Quarterly, 15, 176-190.
- Harrison, R.V. (1976). Job demands and worker health: Person-environment misfit. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

- Hennig, M., & Jardin, A. (1977). The managerial woman, New York: Doubleday.
- Herzberg, F. (1966). Work and nature of man. Cleveland, OH: World.
- Hoffman, L. W. (1980). The effect of maternal employment on the academic attitudes and performance of school aged children. School Psychology Review, 9, 319-335.
- Holland, J. (1973). Making vocational choices: A theory of careers. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Hoppock, R. (1935). Job satisfaction. New York: Harper.
- House, R.J., Filley, A.C., & Kerr, S. (1971). Relation of leader consideration and initiating structure to R and D subordinates' satisfaction. American Sociological Quarterly, 16, 19-30.
- Hrebiniak, L., & Alutto, J. (1972). Personal and role-related factors in the development of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 17, 555-572.
- Hulin, C.L. (1966). Effects of community characteristics on measures of job satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, 50, 185-192.
- Hulin, C.L. (1969). Sources of variation in job and life satisfaction: The role of community and job related variables. Journal of Applied Psychology, 53, 279-291.
- Hunt, R.G., Near, J.P., Rice, R.W., Graham, T.D., & Gutteridge, T.G. (1977). Job satisfaction and life satisfaction: Survey results on work and nonwork-related correlates. Journal Supplement Abstract Service, 7, 55-56.
- Hunt, J.G., Osborn, R.M., & Larson, L.L. (1975). Upper level technical orientation of first level leadership within a non-contingency and contingency framework. Academy of Management Journal, 18, 475-488.
- Huston, T.L. (1983). Power. In H.H. Kelley, E. Bercheid, A. Christensen, J.H. Harvey, T.L. Huston, G. Levinger, E. McClintock, L.A. Peplau, & D.R. Peterson (Eds.), Close relationships (pp. 169-219). San Francisco, CA: Freeman.

- Iris, B., & Barrett, G. (1972). Some relations between job and life satisfaction and job importance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, 301-304.
- James, J.R., & Jones, A.P. (1980). Perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction: An examination of reciprocal causation. Personnel Psychology, 33, 97-135.
- Jones, A.P., & Butler, M.C. (1980). A role transition approach to the stresses or organizationally induced family role disruption. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 367-376.
- Jurgenson, C.E. (1947). Selected factors which influence job preferences. Journal of Applied Psychology, 31, 553-564.
- Kabanoff, B. (1980). Work and nonwork: A review of models, methods and findings. Psychological Bulletin, 88, 60-77.
- Kahn, R., Wolfe, D., Quinn, R., Snoek, J., & Rosenthal, R. (1964). Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity. New York: Wiley.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (1977). Work values and job rewards: A theory of job satisfaction. American Sociological Review, 42, 124-143.
- Kando, J.M., & Summers, W.C. (1971). The impact of work on leisure: Toward a paradigm and research strategy. Pacific Sociological Review, 14, 310-327.
- Kanter, R.M. (1977). Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda of research and policy. New York: Russell Sage Foundations.
- Kanter, R.M. (1979). Power failure in management circuits. Harvard Business Review, 57, 65-75.
- Katerberg, R., Hom, P.W., & Hulin, C.L. (1979). Effects of job complexity on the reactions of part-time employees. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24, 317-332.

- Katzell, R.A. (1979). Changing attitudes toward work. In C. Ken & J. Rosow (Eds.), Work in America: The decade ahead (pp. 35-50). New York: Van Nostrand.
- Kelly, R.F., & Voydanoff, P. (1985). Work/family role strain among employed parents. Family Relations, 34, 367-374.
- Kessler, R., & McRae, J.A. (1982). The effects of wives' employment on the mental health of married men and women. American Sociological Review, 47, 216-227.
- Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S.M., & Wilkinson, I. (1980). Intra-organizational influence tactics: Explorations in getting one's way. Journal of Applied Psychology, 65, 440-452.
- Kline, M., & Cowan, P.A. (1988). Rethinking the connections among "work" and "family" and well being: A model for investigating employment and family work contexts. In E.B. Goldberg (Ed.), Work and family: Theory, research, and application (pp. 61-90). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Korman, A.K. (1970). Towards an hypothesis of work behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54, 31-41.
- Korman, A.K. (1976). Hypothesis of work behavior revisited and an extension. Academy of Management Review, 1, 50-63.
- Korman, A.K., & Korman, R.W. (1980). Career success/personal failure. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kornhauser, A. (1965). Mental health of the industrial worker. New York: Wiley.
- Kroop, R. (1981). Locus of control: A moderator between job characteristics and job attitudes. Psychological Reports, 49, 519-525.
- Lambert, S.J. (1990). Processes linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. Human Relations, 43, 239-257.
- Lawrence, M.W. (1961). Sources of satisfaction in the lives of working women. Journal of Gerontology, 16, 163-167.

- Lawler, E.E. (1973). Motivation in work organizations. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Lawler, E.E., Hackman, J.R., & Kaufman, S. (1973). Effects of job redesign: A field experiment. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 3, 49-62.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1966). Psychological stress and the coping process. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lefcourt, H.M. (1975). Fatalism vs personal control: Theory and research with the locus of control. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Levenson, H., & Miller, J. (1976). Multidimensional locus of control in socio-political activists of conservative and liberal ideologies. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 33, 199-208.
- Lewin, K. (1951). Field theory in social science. New York: Harper.
- Litwin, G.H., & Stringer, R.A. (1968). Motivation and organizational climate. Boston, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Locke, E.A. (1969). Purpose without consciousness: A contradiction. Psychological Reports, 25, 991-1009.
- Locke, E.A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Lofquist, L.H., & Dawis, R.V. (1969). Adjustment to work. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- London, M., Crandall, R., & Seals, G.W. (1977). The contribution of job and leisure satisfaction to quality of life. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, 328-334.
- Madden, M.E. (1987). Perceived control and power in marriage: A study of marital decision making and task performance. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 13, 73-82.

- Maslow, A.H. (1954). Motivation and personality. New York: Harper.
- McKechnie, G.E. (1974). The psychological structure of leisure: Past behavior. Journal of Leisure Research, 6, 27-45.
- McKenry, P.C., Walters, C.M., & Murray, C.I. (1985). Family and job influences on role satisfaction of employed rural mothers. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 9, 242-257.
- Miller, D.C. (1940). The morale of college-trained adults, American Sociological Review, 5, 880-889.
- Mitchell, T. (1979). Organizational behavior. Annual Review of Psychology, 30, 243-281.
- Moore, K.A., & Sawhill, I.V. (1984). Implications of women's employment for home and family life. In P. Voydanoff (Ed.), Work and family: Changing roles of men and women (pp. 153-171). Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.
- Morse, N.C. (1953). Satisfaction in the white-collar job. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for social Research, University of Michigan.
- Mott, P.E., Mann, F.E., McLouglin, Q., & Warwick, D.P. (1965). Shift work: The social, psychological, and physical consequences. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.
- Mottaz, C. (1986). Gender differences in work satisfaction, work related rewards and values and the determinants of work satisfaction. Human Relations, 39, 359-378.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). Employee-organization linkages. New York: Academic.
- Near, J., Rice, R., & Hunt, R. (1980). The relationship between work and nonwork domains: A review of empirical research. Academy of Management Review, 5, 415-429.

- Near, J.P., Smith, A.C., Rice, R.W., & Hunt, R.G. (1983). Job satisfaction and nonwork satisfaction as components of life satisfaction. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 13, 126-144.
- Nie, N.H., Hull, C.H., Jenkins, J.G., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. (1975). SPSS: Statistical package for the social sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nieva, V.F., & Gutek, B.A. (1981). Women and Work: A psychological perspective. New York: Praeger.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978). Psychometric theory. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Osipow, S.H. (1975). Emerging Woman: Career analysis and outlooks. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Orden, S.R., & Bradburn, N.M. (1969). Working wives and marriage happiness. American Journal of Sociology, 74, 392-407.
- O'Reilly, C.A., Parlette, G.N., & Bloom, J.R. (1980). Perceptual measures of task characteristics: The biasing effects of differing frames of reference and job attitudes. Academy of Management Journal, 23, 118-131.
- Orpen, C. (1978). Work and nonwork satisfaction: A causal correlational analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 530-532.
- Orthner, D., & Pittman, J. (1986). Family contributions to work commitment. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48, 573-581.
- Ott, M. (1984). Women and work. In P.L.D. Drenth, H. Thierry, P.J. Willems, & C.J. de Wolff (Eds.), Handbook of work and organizational psychology (pp. 1015-1035). New York: Wiley.
- Parker, S. (1971). Future of work and leisure. London: MacGibbon & Kee.
- Parsons, T. (1949). Essays in sociological theory: Pure and applied. Glencoe, IL: Free.
- Paul, W.J., Robertson, K.B., & Herzberg, F. (1969). Job enrichment pays off. Harvard Business Review, 47, 61-78.

- Payne, R.L. (1971). Organizational climate: The concept and some research findings. Prakseologia, NR 39/40/ROK.
- Payne, R.L., Lane, D., & Jabri, M. (1989). A test of order-administration effects on JABRI & JRI. Unpublished report, Manchester Business School, Manchester.
- Payne, R. & Pugh, D.S. (1976). Organizational structure and climate. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1125-1174). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Payton-Miyazaki, M., & Brayfield, A.H. (1976). The good job and the good life: Relation of characteristics of employment to general well being. In A.D. Biderman & T.F. Drury (Eds.), Measuring work quality of social reporting (pp. 125-150). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Pendleton, B., Poloma, F., Margret, M., & Garland, T.C. (1980). Scales for investigation of the dual career family. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 269-276.
- Pervin, L.A. (1968). Performance and satisfaction as a function of individual-environment fit. Psychological Bulletin, 69, 56-68.
- Pervin, L.A. (1989). Persons, situations and interactions: The history of controversy and a discussion of theoretical models. Academy of Management Journal, 14, 350-360.
- Pierce, J.L., & Dunham, R.B. (1978). The measurement of perceived job characteristics: The Job Diagnostic Survey versus the Job Characteristic Inventory. Academy of Management Journal, 21, 123-128.
- Piotrkowski, C.S. (1978). Work and the family system: A naturalistic study of working-class and lower-middle-class families. New York: Free.
- Piotrkowski, C. (1979). Work and the family system. New York: Free.
- Piotrkowski, C., & Crits-Christoph, P. (1981). Women's job and family adjustment. Journal of Family Issues, 32, 126-147.

- Piotrkowski, C.S., & Katz, M.H. (1983). Work experience and family relations among working-class and lower-class families. Research in the interweave of social roles: Jobs and families, 3, 187-200.
- Pritchard, R.D., & Karasick, B.W. (1973). The effect of organizational climate on managerial job performance and job satisfaction. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 9, 126-146.
- Pleck, J.H. (1977). The work-family role system. Social Problems, 24, 417-428.
- Pleck, J.H., & Lang, L. (1978). Men's family role: Its nature and consequences. Working paper No. 10, Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, Wellesley, M.A.
- Porter, L.W. (1962). Job attitudes in management: Perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment as a function of job level. Journal of Applied Psychology, 46, 375-384.
- Porter, L.W., & Lawler, E.E. (1968). Managerial attitudes and performance. Homewood, Ill: Dorsey.
- Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. Journal of Applied Psychology, 5, 603-609.
- Quinn, R.P. & Shepard, L.J. (1974). The Quality of employment survey. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for social Research, University of Michigan.
- Rabinowitz, S., & Hall, D.T. (1977). Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 84, 265-288.
- Rallings, E.M., & Nye, F.I. (1979). Wife-mother employment, family and society. In W.H. Burr, R. Hill, F. I. Nye, & I.C. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol 1, pp. 203-226). New York: Free.
- Randall, D.M. (1987). Commitment and organization: The organization man revisited. Academy of Management Review, 12, 460-471.

- Raven, B.R., Centers, R., & Rodrigues, A. (1975). The bases of conjugal power. In R.E. Cromwell & D.H. Olson (Eds.), Power in families (pp. 217-232). New York: Wiley.
- Raven, B.H., & Rubin, J.Z. (1983). Social psychology. New York: Wiley.
- Rice, R., Near, J., & Hunt, R. (1979). Unique variance in job and life satisfaction with work-related and extra work-place variables. Human Relations, 32, 605-623.
- Roberts, K.H., & Glick, W. (1981). The job characteristic approach to task design: A critical review. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, 193-217.
- Robey, D., & Bakr, M.M. (1978). Task redesign: Individual moderating and novelty effects. Human Relations, 31, 689-701.
- Roethlisberger, F.J., & Dickson, W.J. (1939). Management and the worker. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Romzek, B.S. (1985). Work and nonwork psychological involvements: The search for linkage. Administration and Society, 17, 257-282.
- Romzek, B.S. (1989). Personal consequences of employee commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 32, 649-661.
- Romzek, B.S., & Hendricks, J.S. (1982). Organizational involvement and representative bureaucracy: Can we have it both ways? American Political Science Review, 76, 75-82.
- Ross, C.E., Mirowsky, J. & Huber, J. (1983). Dividing work, sharing work and in between: Marriage patterns and depression. American Sociological Review, 48, 809-823.
- Rousseau, D.M. (1978). The relationship of work to nonwork. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 513-517.

- Rudd, N.M., & McKenry, P.C. (1982). Social psychological and economic indicators of satisfaction with the dual-work role. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Cincinnati, OH.
- Rundquist, E.A., & Sletto, R.F. (1936). Personality in the depression. MN: Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press.
- Salancik, G.R., & Pfeffer, J. (1974). The bases and use of power in organizational decision making: The case of a university. Administrative Science Quarterly, 19, 453-473.
- Schaffer, R.H. (1953). Job satisfaction as related to need satisfaction in work. Psychological Monographs, 47, Whole no. 364.
- Schein, E.H. (1978). Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs. Readings, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schmitt, N., & Mellon, P.M. (1980). Life and job satisfaction: Is the job central? Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16, 51-58.
- Schnake, M.E. (1983). An empirical assessment of the effects of affective response in the measurement of organizational climate. Personnel Psychology, 36, 791-807.
- Schneider, B., & Hall, D.T. (1973). Towards specifying the concept of work climate: A study of Roman Catholic Diocesan priests. Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, 447-455.
- Scott, W.E. (1966). Activation theory and task design. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1, 3-30.
- Seashore, S.E. (1976). Indicators of the quality of working life. Unpublished paper prepared for the UNESCO conference on the Quality of life, Paris.
- Seeman, M., & Evans, J.W. (1972). Alienation and management. In A. Campbell & P. Converse (Eds.), The human meaning of social change. New York: Russell Sage Foundations.

- Seiber, S.D. (1974). Theory of role accumulation. American Sociological Review, 39, 567-578.
- Sekaran, U. (1983). How husbands and wives in dual career families perceive their family and work worlds. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 22, 288-302.
- Sekaran, U., & Trafton, R. (1978). The dimensionality of jobs: Back to square one. Proceedings of the Midwest Division of the Academy of Management, 21, 249-262.
- Sheldon Z., & Kathleen, L.M. (1990). Work in the family and employing organization. American Psychologist, 45, 240-251.
- Shukla, A., Sarna, T., & Nigam, R. (1989). Work attitudes of employed men and women who are married. Psychological Reports, 64, 711-714.
- Shukla, A., & Saxena, S. (1988). Women's satisfaction with the dual work role. Psychologia, 31, 239-242.
- Siassi, I., Corsetti, G., & Spiro, H.R. (1975). Emotional health, life, and job satisfaction in aging workers. Industrial Gerontology, 2, 289-296.
- Simon, H. (1976). Administrative behavior. New York: Free.
- Sims, H.P., & Szilagyi, A.D. (1975). Leader structure and subordinate satisfaction for two hospital administrative levels: A path analysis approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 194-197.
- Sims, H.P., Szilagyi, A.D. (1976). Job characteristic relationships: Individual and structural moderators. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 17, 211-230.
- Sims, R.R., & Veres, J.L. (1987). Person-job match: Some alternative models. International Journal of Management, 4, 156-165.
- Sinha, J.B.P. (1990). Work-family interface in an Indian setting. Proceedings of the 22nd International Congress of Applied Psychology, Kyoto, Japan.

- Smith, K.U. (1965). Behavior, Organization, and Work: A new approach to industrial science. Madison, WI: College Printing and Typing.
- Smith, T.W. (1985). Working wives and women's rights: The connection between the employment status of wives and the feminist attitudes of husbands. Sex Roles, 12, 501-508.
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.N., & Hulin, C.L. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Spitze, G., & South, S. (1985). Women's employment, time expenditure, and divorce. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 307-329.
- Staines, G. (1980). Spillover versus compensation: A review of the literature of the relationship between work and nonwork. Human Relation, 33, 111-129.
- Staines, G., & Pleck, J. (1983). The impact of work schedules on the family. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.
- Staines, G.L., Pottick, K.J., & Fudge, D.A. (1986). Wives' employment attitudes and husbands' attitudes towards work and life. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 118-128.
- Staw, B.M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 469-480.
- Steers, R.M., & Porter, L.W. (1987). Motivation and work behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Steers, R.M., & Rhodes, S.R. (1978). Major influences on employee attendance: A process model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 391-407.
- Steers, R.M., & Spencer, D.G. (1977). The role of achievement motivation in job design. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, 472-479.

- Stone, E.F., & Hollenbeck, J.R. (1984). Some issues associated with the use of moderated regression. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 34, 195-213.
- Suchet, M., & Barling, J. (1986). Employed mothers: Interrole conflict, spouse support and marital functioning. Journal of Occupational Behavior, 7, 167-178.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911). The principles of scientific management. New York: Harper.
- Taylor, M.S. (1981). The motivational effects of task challenge: A laboratory investigation. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 27, 255-278.
- Trist, E. (1971). A socio-technical critique of scientific management. Paper presented at the Edinburgh conference on the impact of science and technology, University of Edinburgh.
- Turner, A.N., & Lawrence, P.R. (1965). Industrial jobs and the worker. Boston, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Voydannoff, P. (1980). Perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction among men and women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 5, 177-185.
- Voydanoff, P. (1987). Work and family life. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Voydanoff, P. (1988a). Work and family: A review and expanded conceptualization. In E.B. Goldberg (Ed.), Work and family: Theory, research, and application (pp. 1-22). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Voydanoff, P. (1988b). Work role characteristics, family structure, demands, and work/family conflict. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 50, 749-761.
- Vroom, V.H. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.
- Wall, T.D., & Payne, R.L. (1973). Are deficiency scores deficient? Journal of Applied Psychology, 58, 322-326.
- Warr, P., Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1979). Scales for the measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52, 129-148.

- Weiss, D.J., Dawis, R.V., England, G.W., & Lofquist, L.H. (1964). Construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire. Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, XVIII, Minnesota.
- Weiss, R., & Samuelson, N. (1958). Social roles of American women: Their contribution to a sense of usefulness and importance. Marriage and Family Living, 4, 358-366.
- Wesley, F., & Wesley, C. (1977). Sex-role psychology. New York: Human Sciences.
- Wexley, K.N., McLaughlin, J.L., & Sterns, H.L. (1975). A study of perceived need fulfillment and life satisfaction before and after retirement. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 7, 81-87.
- Wilensky, H. (1960). Work, careers and social integration. International Social Science Journal, 12, 543-560.
- Wimperis, B.R., & Farr, J.L. (1979). The effects of task content and reward contingency upon task performance and satisfaction. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 9, 229-249.
- Winer, B.J. (1962). Statistical principles in experimental design. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Wofford, J.C. (1971). The motivational basis of job satisfaction and job performance. Personnel Psychology, 24, 501-518.
- Wright, R., King, S.W., Berg, W., & Creecy, R.F. (1987). Job satisfaction among black female managers: A casual approach. Human Relations, 40, 489-506.
- Yogev, S., & Britt J. (1985). Patterns of work and family involvement among single and dual earner couples. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 754-768.
- Zedeck, S. (1971). Problem with the use of "moderator" variables. Psychological Bulletin, 76, 295-310.

Appendix A

QUALITY OF LIFE

The fundamental aim of this study is to understand the people's attitudes towards various aspects of their lives--such as job, family, leisure activities , and the self. Your frank and sincere replies will help us understand the dynamics of these aspects.

As with any other social science research of this type, only general findings will be reported. Individual anonymity is completely guaranteed; no one other than the researcher will ever see any of your individual responses. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME OR SIGN ANYWHERE ON THIS BOOKLET.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Seema Saxena
Research Scholar

Department of Humanities and Social Sciences
Indian Institute of Technology
Kanpur 208 016 (India)

SECTION I -- Self

This section consists of various sets of statements which relate to your own self. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement with it. Write the number of your choice in the space provided to the left of each statement. The numbers represent the following:

Strongly agree	---	7
Agree	---	6
Slightly agree	---	5
Not Sure	---	4
Slightly disagree	---	3
Disagree	---	2
Strongly disagree	---	1

Set-1--CO

- (01)* I view my work as a job which I have to do for reasons like money.
- (02) I always look for opportunities to rise further.
- (03) In order to prove my worth, employment is essential for me.
- (04) Working outside home is the only way in which I could achieve my identity.
- (05) I realize my worth as an individual only when I look back at my professional achievements.
- (06)* I work outside home for self-fulfillment and to realize my potentials.

Set-2--LOC

- (01I)* Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.
- (02C)* To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental events.
- (03P) What happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.
- (04I)* Whether or not I get into an accident depends mostly on my skill and ability.
- (05I)* When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.
- (06C) Many times there is no chance of protecting myself from bad luck.
- (07C) When I get what I want, it is usually because I am lucky.
- (08P) Even though I might have good ability, I will never become a leader without seeking the approval of those in position of power.

- (09I)* How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.
- (10C) I have found that what is going to happen will happen.
- (11P) My life is mostly controlled by people more powerful than me.
- (12C) Whether or not I get into an accident is mostly a matter of luck.
- (13P) People like me have little chance of protecting our personal interests or welfare from forceful social groups.
- (14P) To get what I want I have to please the people above me.
- (15C) It is not a good idea for me to plan too far ahead because too many things depend on luck.
- (16C) Becoming a leader depends on whether I am lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.
- (17P) If important people did not like me, I probably would not make friends.
- (18I)* I can control what will happen in my life.
- (19I)* It is usually up to me to protect my personal interests.
- (20P) Whether or not I get into an accident depends mostly on the people around me.
- (21I)* When I get what I want, it is usually because I worked hard for it.
- (22P) In order for my plans to work, I make sure that they fit in with the plans of people above me.
- (23I)* My life is mostly determined by my own actions.
- (24C)* How many friends I have is mostly a matter of luck.

Set-3--SI

- (01) My job has made me a better wife\mother than I would have been otherwise.
- (02) I, being a married employed woman, have the best of the two worlds: job benefits combined with full family life.
- (03) I cannot take as good a care of my children as my nonworking neighbors and friends.
- (04)* My employment is as important to the well-being of our family as is my husband's.
- (05) My family has made me a better employee than I would have been otherwise.
- (06)* I would not work if my husband did not approve.

- (02P) I generally discuss my overall performance as a wife and mother with my husband.
- (03W) There is a lot of warmth in the relationship between my family members and me.
- (04S) Things often seem to me to be pretty disorganized around my family.
- (05R) The rewards and encouragement that I get from my family are more than criticisms.
- (06P) I am encouraged to do anything which is of interest to the whole family.
- (07W) I feel that members of my family tend to be warm and close to each other.
- (08S) I know very well what I am supposed to do at home.
- (09R) I am not given enough reward and praise in my family for doing good work.
- (10W) I get a lot of help from my husband with routine tasks in the home.
- (11P) I feel that there is a feeling of pressure that I should give more time to my family.
- (12S) The values and traditions of my family are clearly understood by me.
- (13W) My husband listens to me if I want to talk about what has been happening at my job.
- (14R) My family members show their appreciation for all I do for them.
- (15P) I feel that my family takes me too much for granted.
- (16S) All the important decisions regarding household work are taken by my husband.

Set-4--IF

- (01) I influence my family members' opinion when they face any problem.
- (02) I usually regulate the behavior of my family members.
- (03) I am usually successful in dealing with my family members.
- (04) My suggestions are given serious thoughts by my family members.

How you describe your role in family:

Use the following scale:

To a very great extent	---	7
To a great extent	---	6
To a considerable extent	---	5
To some extent	---	4
To a small extent	---	3
To a very small extent	---	2
To almost no extent	---	1

Part a

- (01) My work at home itself provides me the information about how well I am doing my work.
- (02) Members of my family very often let me know how well I am performing my role in family.
- (03)* My role in family is very significant and the results of my work significantly affect the other family members.
- (04) My work in family requires me to do many different things, using a variety of my skills and talents.
- (05) My work in family has an obvious beginning and end, that is, my work is "whole " and " identifiable ."
- (06) I am allowed to make decisions on my own about how to manage household and related things.
- (07)* My role in family requires me to work closely with other members of the family.

Part b

- (01)* The work itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.
- (02)* The work at home gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I plan and do the work.
- (03)* My work itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.

- (04)* My work in family provides me chance to completely finish the places of work I begin.
- (05) My husband often lets me know how well he thinks I am performing the job.
- (06) My role in family denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
- (07) My family role is such that other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
- (08)* My family members never give me any feedback about how well I am doing in my family.
- (09)* My work can be done adequately by me alone--without talking or checking with other members.
- (10)* The work at home is quite simple and repetitive.
- (11) Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
- (12)* My role in family is such that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- (13)* My role requires a lot of cooperative work with other members of the family.
- (14) My role requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills and talents.

SECTION III -- Work-family Interaction

Set-1--IRS

In our present social structure, most men have the job or bread-winning responsibilities, whereas most women have homemaking or family responsibilities. Considering that you have both the works of job and family at the same time, please answer the following question. Write the number of your choice to the left of each statement. The number represent the following:

Extremely satisfied	---	7
Satisfied	---	6
Slightly satisfied	---	5
Just the same	---	4
Slightly dissatisfied	---	3
Dissatisfied	---	2
Extremely dissatisfied	---	1

How satisfied/dissatisfied are you with the two roles (i.e., role of a paid worker and role of a wife and mother) as compared to:

- (01) Women who are full time housewives ?
- (02) Women who are employed and married ?
- (03) Men who are employed and married but mainly have job related work?

SECTION IV -- Work

This section consists of various sets of statements which relate to your work life. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement with it. While judging the statements, think of your job and the things that happen at your work place. Write the number of your choice in the space provided to the left of each statement. The members represent the following:

Strongly agree	---	7
Agree	---	6
Slightly agree	---	5
Not sure	---	4
Slightly disagree	---	3
Disagree	---	2
Strongly disagree	---	1

Set-1--OI

How you feel about your workplace:

- (01) If I could begin working over again in the same occupation as I am in now, I would choose this place of work.
- (02) I feel a strong sense of loyalty towards this organization.
- (03) I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization.
- (04) If another organization offered me more money for the same kind of work, I would accept.
- (05)* On occasions I have been angered by attempts made by this organization to influence my attitudes and beliefs.
- (06)* My closest friends have very favorable attitudes towards my place of work.
- (07)* I feel that employees should develop a personal commitment to this organization.
- (08)* I often face situations where my professional standards are in conflict with other agency/office programs.
- (09)* I feel that people here do not care whether or not employees are committed to the organization.
- (10)* If I had my life to live over again I would still choose to work for this organization.

Set-2--WS

How you consider your work life:

- (01) Overall, I am satisfied with my career/work life.
- (02) I feel that I am just suited for the kind of work required by my job.
- (03) I would describe my career/work life very happy.
- (04)* I feel upset, worried, or uncomfortable while doing my job related works.
- (05)* I feel that I would have been an incomplete woman without my career/work life.
- (06) I find my career/work interesting.

Set-3--OC

How you perceive and observe your workplace:

- (01R) In this organization, I enjoy a promotion system that helps the best person rise to the top.

- (02P) In this organization, I participate in setting the performance standard for my job.
- (03S) The assignments to this organization are clearly defined to me.
- (04W) I feel that people in this organization do not really trust each other very much.
- (05R) In this organization, I am rewarded in proportion to the excellence of my job performance.
- (06S) The policies and goals of this organization are clearly understood by me.
- (07P) In this organization, I am encouraged to initiate projects that I think are important.
- (08W) There is a lot of warmth in the relationships between management and me in this organization.
- (09R) I am not given enough reward and praise in this organization for doing good work.
- (10P) I very often meet my manager/supervisor to review my overall performance and effectiveness.
- (11S) I have a clear idea of what I am supposed to do at my job.
- (12W) I feel that people in this organization tend to be warm and close to each other.
- (13R) The rewards and encouragements that I get are more than the criticisms.
- (14S) Things often seem to me to be pretty disorganized around my job.
- (15P) I feel that there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve my personal and group performance.
- (16W) People pay a good deal of attention to my feelings at work.

Set-4--IW

- (19I) I usually influence my co-workers' opinion when a problem comes up.
- (04I) I am usually successful in dealing with my co-workers.
- (07I) I usually regulate the behavior of my co-workers.
- (14I) My suggestions are generally given serious thoughts by my co-workers.

Set-5--JDS

Part a

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as objectively as you can. Please circle the number which is most accurate description of your job.

(01)* To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (people in related in your own organization)?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7---

Very little;
dealing with
other people
is not at all
necessary

Moderately;
some dealing
is necessary

Very much;
dealing with
other people is
an essential
part of the job

(02) How much autonomy is there in your job ? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work ?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7---

Very little;
the job gives
me almost no
personal "say"
about how and
when the work
is done

Moderately;
I can make
some decisions
about my work

Very much;
the job gives
me almost
complete
responsibility
for deciding
how and when
the work is
done

(03) To what extent does your job involve doing the "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by machines ?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7---

My job is
only a small
piece of work

My job is a
moderate sized
piece and my
contribution can
be seen in final
outcome

My job involves
doing the whole
piece of work
from start to
finish, the
result of my
activities are
easily seen in
final outcome

(04)* How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7--

Very little;
the job requires
me to do the same
routine over and
over again

Moderate
variety

Very much; the
job requires me
to do many
different things,
using a variety
of skill and
talents

(05) In general, how significant or important is your job ? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people ?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7--

Not very
significant;
the outcome of
work are not
likely to have important
effects on others

Moderately
significant

Highly significant;
the outcome of
work can affect
other people in
very important
ways

(06)* To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job ?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7--

Very little;
people almost
never let me
know how well
I am doing

Moderately;
only some-
times

Very much;
managers or
co-workers
provide me with
almost constant
"feedback"

(07)* To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance ? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing--aside from any feedback co-workers or superiors may provide ?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7-----

Very little;
the job itself
is set up so that
I could work forever
without finding out
how well I am doing

Moderately;
sometimes

Very much; the
job is set up so
that I get almost
constant
"feedback" as I
work about how
well I am doing

Part b

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job. You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or inaccurate description of your job. Please be as objective as you can. Write the number of your choice in the space to the left of each statement, based on the following scale :

Very accurate --- 7
Mostly accurate --- 6
Slightly accurate --- 5
Uncertain --- 4
Slightly inaccurate --- 3
Mostly inaccurate --- 2
Very inaccurate --- 1

- (01) The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
- (02)* The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
- (03)* The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- (04)* Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
- (05) The job is quite simple and repetitive.
- (06)* The job can be done adequately by a person working alone without talking or checking with other people.
- (07) The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.
- (08)* This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well I the work gets done.

- (09)* The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
- (10)* Supervisor often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
- (11) The job provide me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
- (12) The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
- (13) The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
- (14)* The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

SECTION V -- Life in General

Here are some words and phrases which you can use to describe how you feel about your present life . Circle one number on each line that describes how you see your life. Use the middle numbers if you think neither the left nor right hand words greatly describe how you feel.

01. Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
02. Enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Miserable
03.* Easy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hard
04. Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthwhile
05.* Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Lonely
06. Full	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Empty
07. Discouraging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hopeful
08.* Tied down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Free
09. Disappointing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Rewarding
10. Brings out the best in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doesn't give me much of a chance